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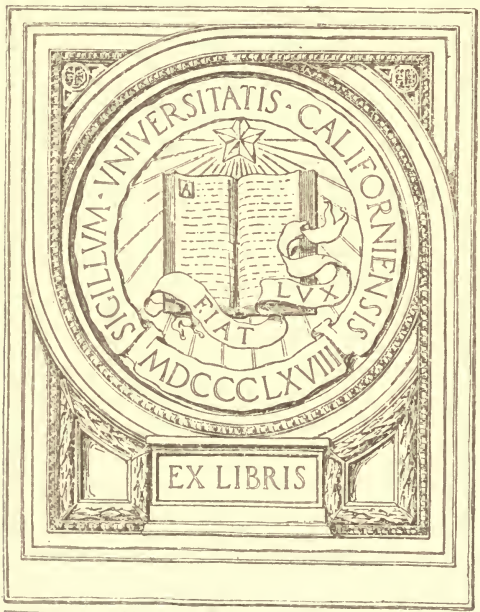

# A HISTORY

OF

# THE UNITED STATES

FOR SCHOOLS.

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# A HISTORY

OF

# THE UNITED STATES

## FOR SCHOOLS;

NCLUDING A CONCISE ACCOUNT OF THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA, THE COLONIZATION OF THE LAND, AND THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR.

BY

WILLIAM A. MOWRY, A.M., PH.D.

AND

ARTHUR MAY MOWRY, A.M.

With Maps, Illustrations, Analyses, and Bibliographies.

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# PREFACE.

AMERICAN history should be studied in all American schools. This is evident not only because it is the history of our own country, but because it is the most marvellous history of the world. It is, moreover, the most fascinating of all history, especially to young minds. Furthermore, it is the most useful history that the youth can study.

History is of value only so far as it relates to the development of mankind, the elevation of the race. The history of our country unfolds the surest, strongest, and most rapid development to be found in all countries and in all ages.

This book is a school-book, especially designed for class use in the schools, both public and private, of the United States. The authors, at the outset, laid down certain principles in the preparation of its pages. These principles may be stated as follows: —

**1. Accuracy.** — An American humorist has embodied an important truth in the following statement: "It is better not to know so many things than to know so many things that are not so." Our histories and biographies have too often been filled with anecdotes and incidents which have no more foundation in fact than the stories of Baron Munchausen or Sinbad the sailor. From W. L. Weems and Peter Parley down to the latest history-writer and story-teller, the children have had placed before them the graphic outlines of cherry-tree stories and Lincoln anecdotes, until the boys and girls can scarcely discriminate as to truthfulness between history and Grimm's Fairy Tales. In studying history the learner

should be taught that which is true, and the facts should be told with due relation and in their proper connection.

**2. Clearness.** — The next requisite for a good school history is clearness of statement. This implies sufficient detail to make the narration lucid and interesting. Dry facts and dates strung together in a chronological narrative will not appear to the child's mind connected or interesting. Enough must be told to convey to his imagination a related story.

**3. A Topical Arrangement.** — While many teachers say that their pupils regard history as dull and uninviting, others glow with enthusiasm in relating how charming and fascinating the children find the study. Much of this charm comes from a logical sequence of the related events. Children everywhere are delighted to find natural results flowing from previously considered causes. It is, therefore, important that the subjects be treated topically, and hence that the chronological order be not followed too rigidly.

**4. Mental Development.** — This study, like all others, should be so carried on as to stimulate mental growth. It is not sufficient to present to the child's mind a great number and variety of facts to be memorized, but rather the sequence of fruitful and suggestive events should be apprehended and appreciated.

**5. Well-balanced Periods.** — Some books are very full upon the Colonial period, followed by a too brief account of the War of the Revolution; others pass lightly over the development of the country during the first half of this century, only to dwell with unnecessary detail upon the battles of the Mexican and Civil Wars. This book has 115 pages of the Colonial period, — that is, down to 1763; 76 pages relating to the Revolutionary period; 92 pages showing the development of the young republic between 1781 and 1860; 50 pages upon the War of the Rebellion; and 47 pages concerning the history since 1865.

**6. How to teach History.** — As preliminary to the "Suggestions to Teachers" which follow this preface, it may be proper to suggest that the first and most important thing to be accomplished by teaching our history in the schools, is to create and develop a love for history in the minds of the children. Hence mere memorizing from the pages of the book to be recited (and then forgotten) is entirely out of place. The story must be made *interesting*, and to do this much collateral reading from narratives of greater detail, especially upon the most important topics and branches of the subject, will be found absolutely essential.

Here it should be observed that it is *by no means necessary* that every school should study all the subject-matter of this book. Many things may be gone over cursorily or even omitted altogether. The character of the school and of the class, and the amount of time at the teacher's disposal, will govern this matter.

In the making of this book the authors have had many advantages. It is the result of a lifetime of critical study on the part of one author, and of rare opportunities at Harvard University during three years of post-graduate study, preceded by an experience of ten years' teaching in secondary schools, on the part of the other.

The authors desire to call special attention to the unusually attractive typography and general mechanical execution of the book. The cuts which so finely embellish the work have been chosen with care, and in most cases engraved expressly for it. The maps, also, both colored and uncolored, have been prepared with great pains and by the best artists. Every small map printed with the text has been engraved from drawings by the authors, with special care to illustrate the text, and make the geography an important aid in understanding the historical sequence of events. Teachers and pupils will find that the full-page colored maps are an important aid to a clear and complete knowledge of the history.

The manuscript has been read and carefully examined by half a dozen experts, — teachers, literary men, and historians. The authors are under special obligations to Gen. H. B. Carrington, LL. D., author of "Battles of the American Revolution," for

a critical examination and many valuable suggestions; to Mr. M. T. Pritchard, Master of the Everett School, Boston; and Col. Charles W. Johnson, who have read the work in manuscript.

The book is commended to the teachers of America with the hope that they will find it reliable, interesting, and useful.

*June* 1, 1896.

WILLIAM A. MOWRY,
*Hyde Park, Mass.*

ARTHUR MAY MOWRY,
*Cambridge, Mass.*

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# SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS.

ALL teachers realize that, as there is no "royal road to learning," so there is no one "only correct" method of teaching. This fact is particularly true in the teaching of history. No method can be laid down which will prove to be the best for all teachers to pursue, in carrying a class through a course of American History. Still, it is true that different text-books in United States History have their peculiarities, and that each is particularly adapted to a certain method, and will prove a more valuable aid to the teacher if used in its own way. The brief suggestions for the use of this book are presented with this idea in mind.

First, it is necessary to remember that the chief end of class-room work in teaching history is to instil in the pupil a true and lasting interest in history, — in the experiences of his ancestors, their achievements, and their mistakes. An end hardly less important to be borne in mind in teaching the history of our own country is the making of good citizens, the only hope of a republic. Other results that may be obtained from the pursuit of this branch of school-work are secondary, and should not be allowed to take precedence over these more important ends.

In accomplishing these results, the text-book should be considered merely as an outline. It should always be noted that the book is small and can give but a few of the leading facts in history; that these must be briefly stated; and that emphasis is laid upon certain events, while others may be deemed more important by other students. It is necessary to supplement the text-book by material obtained from other sources. What these sources and this material may be depends in great measure upon the local conditions, — the school library; the city library; museums of history and of art; and more particularly upon the ability of the teacher.

The simplest resource by which a text-book outline may be filled out is by the simultaneous use of other text-books. These may be placed in the hands of the individual pupils in various ways. Each pupil may have

more than one text-book; or he may have but one, while a supply of other books may lie upon a table or shelf for consultation.

This use of different text-books ought, however, to be supplemented by outside reading. No list of such reading can be prepared which will be more than provisional. The *teacher* should, if possible, go to the "original sources" for the material which will make him properly prepared to guide a class. The opportunity to do this is so limited, however, that it has been deemed best to present in this book only a list of the "secondary literature" with which every teacher ought to be familiar. This list, which follows these "Suggestions to Teachers," is quite full, but by no means exhaustive, and teachers are advised to consult more complete bibliographies and methods of teaching history, such as Adams' "Manual of Historical Literature," Hall's "Methods of Teaching History," Gordy and Twitchell's "Pathfinder of American History," Hinsdale's "How to teach History," and the "Report of the Committee of Ten."

Another list of books, as a rule more suitable for the pupils' reading, is given in the Appendix. The teacher will often find, however, that there are specific portions of the standard works, in the first list, and sometimes whole volumes even, which they can recommend to the classes to read, or at least to certain members, especially for work on particular topics. In the pupils' list will be found historical stories, as well as more closely historical works, which, if properly used, will bend their minds in the right direction. They will give local coloring and flavor to an epoch, but the pupil will need to be cautioned against too complete trust in what are recorded as facts in these stories.

These lists are necessarily too brief to contain a mention of the numerous magazine articles on various historical subjects that are often of more value to the student of history than more pretentious volumes. This is especially true at the present day, when the magazines are vying with each other in presenting interesting and finely illustrated accounts of historical persons and events. Current events should not be forgotten in a course of American History, and the magazines, especially the "Review of Reviews," "Current Events," "Current History," "Public Opinion," and the like, are invaluable for this purpose.

Not merely books and magazines, but pictures, articles of historic interest, maps, etc., must be drawn upon in the effort to interest the pupil in history as history. Debates, oral or written, on questions closely connected with our history, are useful aids, besides furnishing drill in composition and elocution. Essays written on historical subjects relieve teacher

and pupil from much of the monotony of written work. These compositions may be illustrated by drawings or original maps, and thus history may be combined with English, drawing, geography, and writing.

Turning from this work, which is for the most part carried on outside of the class, a few suggestions may be given as to the conduct of the recitation. The two methods used in teaching history are the "Topical" and "Question and Answer" methods. Perhaps a logical combination of the two would be more scientific. This text-book has been arranged with the idea of topics and groups of topics continually in mind. The logical connection of events has been considered of more importance than a true and consistent chronological order. Yet it has not been forgotten that chronology is helpful in fixing history in mind. Dates are often aids to an understanding as well as a remembrance of historical facts. The number of dates which a pupil should memorize, however, should be kept as limited as possible, and the tables of chronology should be used mainly for reference.

Another important aid is the thorough use of geography. It will be hardly possible to carry this means of history teaching too far. The maps in this book are as complete and as numerous as such a work would warrant. The colored maps give a complete account, in themselves, of the growth of the country territorially. The outline maps present to the pupil just that small portion of the geography which is necessary for an understanding of the events under consideration.

But these maps should be supplemented by other geographical work. MacCoun's "Historical Charts of the United States," 38 by 40 inches in size, colored to show territorial divisions, present clearly to the eye the several parts of the original territory and all portions added by purchase or otherwise. MacCoun's "Historical Geography of the United States," is an inexpensive handbook, accompanying the charts. These will be found helpful in any schoolroom. Atlases should be used in connection with all historical reading. More important is the constant use of outline maps. These should be placed in the hands of each pupil at the beginning of the course, and every day should find some additional place or boundary, or exploration recorded. Larger outline maps for wall use are now found in the market, and will supplement the individual maps. The blackboard should be brought into use also. Artistic or complete maps are not needed, but merely brief outlines to be filled in as the pupils recite. Perhaps the most effective use of the blackboard maps is in tracing the course of individual campaigns in any of the wars with which American history has to deal.

For the recitation, the Blackboard Analysis which precedes each of the twelve sections might be placed on the board, when the section is begun, and retained until the next section is reached. A more complete analysis might be commenced, to be added to day by day. A pupil is called upon to relate a topic as it stands in the mind of such pupil. No interruption should be made until the recitation is finished. Then real misstatements of facts should be corrected by the other pupils; additional incidents may be presented; other points of view may be noted. Then the teacher should carry the leading points home to the minds of the pupils by questions carefully chosen. Questions which may be answered by "Yes" or "No" should be avoided. Individual and blackboard maps might then be brought into requisition, and all important places or movements mentioned in the lesson might be recorded. The system of cross references, though but an outline, and needing explanation by the teacher, should not be forgotten. Interest may be stimulated by reading poems and orations in the class, and by frequent exercises upon patriotic days.

These suggestions are, however, merely hints. The true teacher will realize that the text-book is but the basis upon which, by skilfully directed reading and various devices, a love for and a general knowledge of real history is to be developed.

W. A. M.

A. M. M.

# SOURCES OF INFORMATION.

## GENERAL ACCOUNTS.

THE latest and most valuable of the general histories of the United States is entitled "The Narrative and Critical History of America" (8 vols.), edited by Justin Winsor. It is not a continuous history, as the chapters are distinct historical essays written by various authors, each a specialist in his department. The first volume is devoted to America before the time of Columbus, the second to Spanish explorations and settlements, the third to English, the fourth to French, Portuguese, Dutch, and Swedish, the fifth to the French and English in North America, the sixth and seventh to the Revolution and later history of the United States, and the last to the later history of British, Spanish, and Portuguese America.

Bancroft's "History of the United States" (6 vols.) is the result of more than fifty years of continuous research, and is a full and accurate account. The first two volumes are devoted to colonial history, while the remaining four cover the period from 1763 to 1789.

Hildreth's "History of the United States" (6 vols.) is also full, quite accurate and impartial. The first two volumes bring the narrative to 1773, the third takes up the Revolution, while the remaining three continue the history to the year 1820.

Bryant and Gay's "Popular History of the United States" (4 vols.) is the most popular illustrated history. A good short account is Doyle's "History of the United States," written by an Englishman. Each of the various school histories of the United States furnishes some material not found in any one of the others.

Von Holst's "Constitutional and Political History of the United States" (7 vols.) presents an excellent governmental history from 1750 to 1860. Mr. Von Holst is a German, and his work is specially valuable as being written by one who could be strictly impartial. The five volumes of Schouler's "History of the United States of America under the Constitution" present the only recent complete history from 1781 to 1861. McMaster's

"History of the People of the United States from the Revolution to the Civil War" is not yet completed (1896), but the four volumes published present the social history very fully up to 1820.

Two recent brief summaries of the governmental history are Sterne's "Constitutional History and Political Development of the United States" and Landon's "Constitutional History and Government of the United States." Johnston's "History of American Politics" and Stanwood's "History of Presidential Elections" are useful brief volumes.

The three volumes of the "Epochs of American History" furnish an admirable short course in United States history. They are Thwaites' "The Colonies," Hart's "Formation of the Union," and Wilson's "Division and Reunion." Another excellent set is the "American History Series," of which Fisher's "Colonial Era," Sloane's "French War and the Revolution," and Walker's "The Making of the Nation" have been issued (1896). Another excellent single volume, covering the period from 1765 to 1865, is Channing's "The United States of America." Andrews' "History of the United States" (2 vols.) is very readable.

A large amount of valuable historical information is found in such works as Lalor's "Cyclopedia of Political Science, Political Economy, and the Political History of the United States" (3 vols.); Ben. Perley Poore's "The Federal and State Constitutions, Colonial Charters, and other Organic Laws of the United States" (2 vols.); Jameson's "Dictionary of United States History;" Preston's "Documents Illustrative of American History;" Tyler's "History of American Literature" (2 vols.); the "Old South Tracts;" and the "American History Leaflets."

The "American Statesmen Series," the "American Commonwealth Series," the "American Men-of-Letters Series," the "Makers of America Series," and the "Historic Towns Series," are collections of biography and local history that furnish interesting and fairly accurate reading.

# Part I.

## ESTABLISHMENT OF THE COLONIES.

### SECTION I.

#### DISCOVERY, EXPLORATION, AND ATTEMPTED SETTLEMENT.

For accounts of the discovery of America previous to the time of Columbus, the student should see Winsor's "Narrative and Critical History,"

vol. i.; Bryant and Gay's "Popular History," vol. i., chaps. i. and ii.; Fiske's "Discovery of America," vol. i.; and De Costa's "Pre-Columbian Discovery of America by the Northmen."

The story of Columbus is given in Irving's "Life of Columbus" (3 vols.); Winsor's "Columbus" (2 vols.); Prescott's "Ferdinand and Isabella;" Fiske's "Discovery of America;" and Kettell's "Personal Narrative of the First Voyage of Columbus to America."

General accounts of the discovery, exploration, and settlement of America, between 1492 and 1602, are given in Doyle's "English Colonies in America," vol. i., pp. 22–74; and in the complete histories of Winsor, Bancroft, Hildreth, and Bryant and Gay.

Special accounts may be found in Irving's "Conquest of Florida;" Help's "Spanish Conquest of America;" Biddle's "Sebastian Cabot;" Hawks' "History of North Carolina;" Baird's "Huguenot Emigration to America;" Parkman's "Pioneers of France in the New World;" and Hakluyt's "Collection of Early Voyages."

## SECTION II.

### PERMANENT SETTLEMENTS.

In the third volume of Winsor's "Narrative and Critical History," and in the first volumes of Bancroft and Hildreth will be found full accounts of the Virginia Company.

The settlement of Virginia is given in Doyle's "Virginia," Cooke's "Virginia," and Brown's "Genesis of the United States." Eggleston's "Pocahontas" popularly portrays the Indian princess, and John Smith's "Generall Historie of Virginia," written in 1624, furnishes contemporary matter.

The best history of the Eastern colonies is Palfrey's "Compendious History of New England" (4 vols.) The first volume is devoted to the settlement. Hubbard's "History of New England" furnishes early material. Fiske's "Beginnings of New England" is more recent and more thorough than the other works.

Morton's "New England Memorial" and "Young's "Chronicles of the Pilgrim Fathers" comprise articles on Plymouth history written by the first settlers. Goodwin's "Pilgrim Republic" and Baylies' "History of New Plymouth" (2 vols.) may be consulted with profit.

Barry's "History of Massachusetts" (3 vols.) is the most complete history of the "Old Bay State," while Ellis' "Puritan Age and Rule in the

Colony of Massachusetts Bay" is also valuable. Other works that may be consulted with profit are Adams' "Emancipation of Massachusetts," Winsor's "Memorial History of Boston" (4 vols.), Lodge's "Boston," in the "Historic Towns Series," and Twichell's "John Winthrop," in "Makers of America Series."

Belknap's "New Hampshire," Williamson's "Maine," and Heaton's "Vermont" are good histories of those States.

For Connecticut the reader should examine the State history by Trumbull or Johnston, Walker's "Thomas Hooker," in "Makers of America Series," and Levermore's "Republic of New Haven."

The best history of Rhode Island is that of Arnold (2 vols.), while Greene's "Short History of Rhode Island" is readable. Of the lives of Roger Williams that by Knowles is recommended.

For the colony of New York the most elaborate and carefully written is the "History by Brodhead" (2 vols.), while Roberts' "History of New York" (2 vols.), in the "Commonwealth Series" is valuable. Mrs. Lamb's "History of New York City" is very complete, and Roosevelt's "New York," in the "Historic Towns Series," is a popular book.

Browne's "Maryland" and "Lives of George and Cecilius Calvert" furnish full and interesting accounts of the settlement of Maryland. Raum's "New Jersey" and Scharf's "Delaware" are the most available histories of those settlements.

For the more southern colonies we have Moore's "History of North Carolina" (2 vols.), Ramsay's and Rivers' "South Carolina," and Hewatt's "History of the Rise and Progress of the Colonies of South Carolina and Georgia." Wright's "Memoirs of Oglethorpe" is a good account of the founder of the colony of Georgia.

Of the "Keystone" State, Sewel's "History of the Quakers," Janney's "Life of Penn," and the histories of Egle, Cornell, and Proud give full accounts.

General accounts of the settlements are given in Winsor, vols. iii., iv., and v., Bancroft, vols. i. and ii., Hildreth, vols. i. and ii., and Bryant and Gay, vols. i., ii., and iii.; in Frothingham's "Rise of the Republic;" in Doyle's "English Colonies" (3 vols.); in Thwaites' "The Colonies;" in Fisher's "Colonial Era;" in Chalmers' "Annals of the United Colonies to 1763;" and in Grahame's "History of the United States of North America, from the Planting of the British Colonies until their Assumption of Independence" (2 vols.)

## SECTION III.

### COLONIAL WARS.

Accounts of the Red Indians of America are found in Bancroft, vol. ii., chaps. v.–viii.; in Hildreth, vol. i., chap. ii.; in Higginson's "Larger History of the United States," chap. i.; in Catlin's "North American Indians;" in Drake's "Aboriginal Races of North America;" and in Ellis' "Red Man and White Man in America."

In Roosevelt's "Winning of the West," vol. i., is found a description of Southern Indians; in Stone's "Life of Brant," and "Life of Red Jacket," of the Iroquois; and in H. H. Bancroft's "Native Races of the Pacific Coast," of that section of the country. Carrington's "Census Report upon the Six Nations, 1890," is also valuable.

Mason's "History of the Pequot War" is to be found in vol. iii. of the third series of the Massachusetts Historical Society's Collections. The best account of King Philip's War is given in Church's "Entertaining Passages relating to Philip's War."

The seven volumes of Parkman's "France and England in North America" make an almost perfect history of New France and its contests with the English. The separate titles are "Pioneers of France in the New World," "Jesuits in North America," "La Salle and the Discovery of the Great West," "Old Régime in Canada," "Count Frontenac and New France under Louis XIV.," "Montcalm and Wolfe," and "Conspiracy of Pontiac."

Other pictures of the French in America are furnished in Hinsdale's "Old Northwest" and Machar and Marquis' "Stories of New France."

All of the general histories give accounts of the French and Indian wars, and besides these and Parkman's series, Warburton's "Conquest of Canada" and Mante's "History of the Late War" are valuable. Burinot's "Cape Breton and its Memorial" is a recent volume, giving a full account of the two English captures of Louisburg.

## SECTION IV.

### COLONIAL LIFE.

The most valuable, available book furnishing accounts of colonial life is Lodge's "Short History of the English Colonies in America." A chapter is devoted to the population, occupations, education, religion, government, and social condition in each colony or group of colonies.

On colonial life in the Southern and New England colonies see Doyle's "The English in America." In Eggleston's "History of the United States and its People" will be found matter concerning life in the colonies. Coffin's "Old Times in the Colonies" presents an interesting series of pictures.

New England's peculiarities are set out in Ellis' "Puritan Age and Rule in Massachusetts Bay," in Dexter's "Congregationalism," in Lodge's "Boston," in Lowell's "New England Two Hundred Years Ago" ("Among my Books"), in Bacon's "Sabbath in New Haven," in Trumbull's "True Blue Laws," in Sewall's "Diary," and in Weeden's "Economic and Social History of New England."

Stone's "New York City" furnishes an account of the early Dutch settlement; Scharf's "History of Delaware" sets forth society in that colony; Mellick's "Story of an Old New Jersey Farm" illustrates life in the middle colonies; and Burden's "History of the Friends in America" contains an account of the Quakers in Pennsylvania and New Jersey.

All the Southern colonies are illustrated in Meade's "Old Churches of Virginia," Hopkins' "Youth of the Old Dominion," and Cooke's "Stories of the Old Dominion."

Whitmore's "Andros' Tracts" give an account of the political condition of the colonies; Upham's "Witchcraft" is authority in regard to that terrible delusion; and Boone's "Education in the United States" is the standard work on that subject.

# Part II.

## FORMATION OF THE NATION.

### SECTION V.

#### CONTROVERSY WITH ENGLAND.

"The Revolution Impending," in Winsor's "Narrative and Critical History," vol. vi., is one of the best accounts of the years immediately preceding the war. Hosmer's "Life of Samuel Adams" and Henry's "Life of Patrick Henry" are excellent biographies of those two leaders of the patriots. Many of the speeches that hastened the beginning of the struggle are given in Johnston's "American Orations" and in Magoon's "Orators of the Revolution."

Among the many excellent works on the War of the Revolution should be mentioned the narrative histories: Gordon's "American War" (3 vols.), and Ludlow's "War of American Independence;" the extended history, by Fiske, entitled "The American Revolution" (2 vols.); Greene's "Historical View of the Revolution," Otis' Botta's "History of the American Revolution," which treats the subject philosophically from the standpoint of an Italian; and Carrington's "Battles of the American Revolution," which is introduced by a military analysis of the causes of the Revolution.

## SECTION VI.

### RESISTANCE LEADING TO INDEPENDENCE.

Besides the works of Ludlow, Greene, Fiske, Otis' Botta, Gordon, Hosmer, Henry, and Carrington, which have just been described, special mention should be made of volumes vi. and vii. of Winsor's "Narrative and Critical History." In volume vii., under the head of "Independence" is given the best description of the steps that led up to the Declaration.

Storrs' "Fathers of the Declaration" and Goodrich's "Lives of the Signers of the Declaration" present accounts of the characters of the statesmen that gave us our independence. Sparks' "Life and Letters of George Washington" is invaluable to the student of the Revolution. In Frothingham's "Siege of Boston" is a full account of that part of the war. One of the most interesting stories of the war for children is Coffin's "Boys of '76."

## SECTION VII.

### STRUGGLE FOR INDEPENDENCE.

The general histories of the war mentioned above — namely, those of Ludlow, Fiske, Greene, Otis' Botta, Gordon, and Carrington — are still the most valuable. Sparks' "Washington" is here also most important.

Among the histories of single campaigns are Drake's "Burgoyne Invasion of 1777," Draper's "King's Mountain and its Heroes," Lee's "Memoirs of War in the Southern Department," and Johnston's "Yorktown Campaign."

Other special histories are Hale's "Franklin in France," Balch's "The French in America," Moore's "Treason of Lee," Roosevelt's "Winning of the West," Gilmore's "Rear Guard of the Revolution," and Arnold's "Life of Benedict Arnold." The best account of the treaty of peace is that of Jay, in the seventh volume of Winsor's "Narrative and Critical

History." A better understanding of the difficulties of making a treaty may be obtained by reading Sabine's "Loyalists of the Revolution," and Hinsdale's "Old Northwest."

## SECTION VIII.

### THE NEW NATION.

The three best sources of information on this period are Fiske's "Critical Period of American History," Bancroft, vol. vi., and vol. vii. of Winsor's "Narrative and Critical History." Bryce's "American Commonwealth" and Von Holst's "History of the United States," vol. i., should also be consulted.

The student of the Constitution should consult Story's "Commentaries on the Constitution," the works of Hamilton, Madison, and Washington, Towle's "Analysis of the Constitution," and Elliott's "Debates," including particularly "The Federalist."

Some one of the many excellent works on Civil Government for the schools should be used in connection with this section. Among the best of these are Andrews' "Manual of the Constitution," Dawes' "How we are Governed," Fiske's "Civil Government in the United States," Giffin's "Civics for Young Americans," Macy's "Our Government," Mowry's "Elements of Civil Government," Nordhoff's "Politics for Young Americans," Peterman's "Elements of Civil Government," and Thorpe's "The Government of the People of the United States."

# Part III.

## DEVELOPMENT OF THE NATION.

## SECTION IX.

### THE NATION ESTABLISHED.

One of the best methods to pursue, in studying the first period of the history of the United States under the Constitution, is to use freely the biographies of the leading statesmen of the time. No better set can be found than the "American Statesmen Series," especially Lodge's "Washington" and "Hamilton," Morse's "Jefferson" and "John Adams," Gilman's "Monroe," and Gay's "Madison." More complete biographies are those of Washington, by Sparks, by Irving, and by Marshall; of John

Adams, by C. F. Adams; of Jefferson, by Tucker and by Randall; and of Hamilton, by Sumner.

The writings and correspondence of the great statesmen of this period have been published, furnishing contemporary history that is invaluable. The most noted of these are the works of Washington, John Adams, Jefferson, Madison, Hamilton, and Gallatin. "The History of the United States of America," by Henry Adams, in 9 vols., is a very complete and excellent account of the period from 1801 to 1817.

Lossing's "Pictorial Field-Book of the War of 1812," Taussig's "Tariff History of the United States," Bishop's "History of American Manufactures," and Benton's "Thirty Years' View," furnish needed information in their particular lines. In Coffin's "Building the Nation" and in "Our First Century," interesting matter may be obtained for young readers.

## SECTION X.

### THE NATION THREATENED.

Besides the general histories, mentioned above, as covering the whole or a part of this period, the following special histories should be again noted, — Taussig's "Tariff History of the United States" and Sumner's "History of American Currency." A very recent and valuable production is Rhodes' "History of the United States," the first two volumes covering the period from 1850 to 1860. Spring's "Kansas" gives the best account of the "Border War."

Among the "American Statesmen Series" the following are important aids for students in United States History, — Schurz's "Clay," Von Holst's "Calhoun," Lodge's "Webster," Sumner's "Jackson," and Morse's "John Quincy Adams." Johnston's "Representative American Orations" furnishes just what it claims to do. Peirce's "Charles Sumner" gives an accurate account of one of the most prominent of the antislavery leaders. Olmstead's "Cotton Kingdom" is the best presentation of the social conditions of the slave States. The first chapters of works on the Civil War, mentioned below, are devoted to the history leading up to the great contest.

Among the many contemporaneous accounts of the history of this period the following hold a high position, — the correspondence of Daniel Webster, that of Henry Clay, the "Memoirs" of John Quincy Adams, "Perley's Reminiscences," and Benton's "Thirty Years' View."

## SECTION XI.

### THE NATION ASSURED.

For the causes of the Civil War the statements for one side or the other are fully given in the following works, — Greeley's "American Conflict," Stephens' "War between the States," Davis' "Rise and Fall of the Confederate Government," and Pollard's "Lost Cause."

For the Civil War itself the student may examine Comte de Paris' "History of the Civil War in America," Ropes' "History of the Civil War," Rhodes' "History of the United States," vol. iii., Dodge's "Bird's-Eye View of the Civil War," The Century Company's "War Book," and the series entitled "Campaigns of the Civil War." Grant's "Memoirs," "Memoirs of General W. T. Sherman," Sheridan's "Personal Memoirs," "McClellan's Own Story," and Longstreet's "From Manassas to Appomattox," and many other personal reminiscences of the generals of the Civil War are at the disposal of the student. The various lives of Lincoln, large and small, must not be overlooked.

## SECTION XII.

### THE NATION AT PEACE.

The period from 1865 to the present time is too recent to have furnished many good histories. Most of the information which can be obtained is to be found in contemporary periodicals. Compilations like Appleton's "Annual Cyclopedia" are of value to the student.

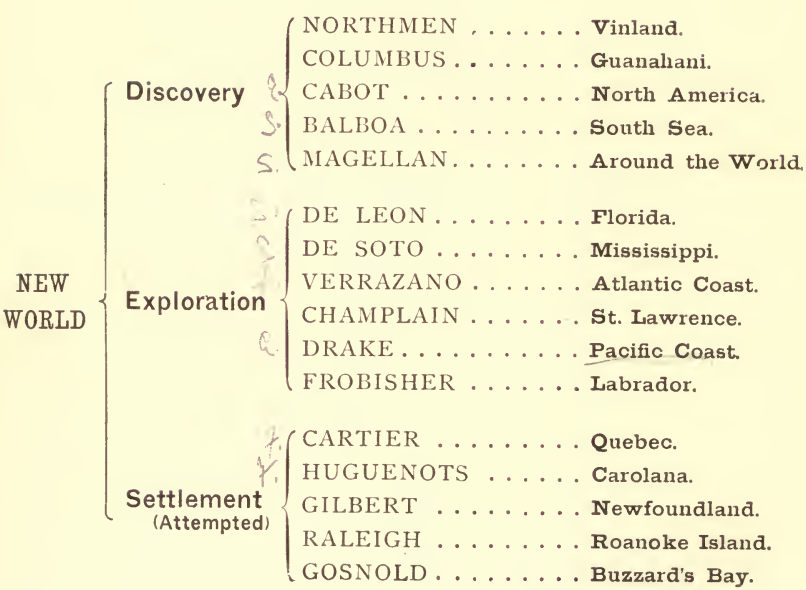
Memoirs and reminiscences contain much that is suggestive. Among these may be mentioned "The Sherman Letters," John Sherman's "Recollections of Forty Years," Cox's "Three Decades," Blaine's "Twenty Years in Congress," and "Butler's Book." Among the special works, McPherson's "History of Reconstruction" will be found valuable. Campaign lives of each of the leading candidates for President have been written, which, if carefully sifted, may furnish something of value. The only important attempt to cover this period of our history is Andrews' "History of the United States during the last Quarter-Century."

# A HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

first use of ballot in Mass Bay Co. Mass in 16

# Blackboard Analysis.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| NEW WORLD | Discovery | NORTHMEN | Vinland. |
| | | COLUMBUS | Guanahani. |
| | | CABOT | North America. |
| | | BALBOA | South Sea. |
| | | MAGELLAN | Around the World. |
| | Exploration | DE LEON | Florida. |
| | | DE SOTO | Mississippi. |
| | | VERRAZANO | Atlantic Coast. |
| | | CHAMPLAIN | St. Lawrence. |
| | | DRAKE | Pacific Coast. |
| | | FROBISHER | Labrador. |
| | Settlement (Attempted) | CARTIER | Quebec. |
| | | HUGUENOTS | Carolana. |
| | | GILBERT | Newfoundland. |
| | | RALEIGH | Roanoke Island. |
| | | GOSNOLD | Buzzard's Bay. |



OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

I. Leif Ericson sighting land

# Part I.

## ESTABLISHMENT OF THE COLONIES.

### 1492-1763.

## SECTION I.

### DISCOVERY, EXPLORATION, AND ATTEMPTED SETTLEMENT. 1492-1602.

## CHAPTER I.

### DISCOVERY OF THE NEW WORLD.

**1. The Known World during the Fifteenth Century.** — At the time of the discovery of America, nearly all portions of the world were inhabited, though but a few nations were in any sense civilized. There were the Indians of America, the Negroes of Africa, the Chinese of Eastern Asia; but the world with which the civilized peoples were acquainted comprised only a quarter of that with which we are familiar. Observe that northeastern Asia, the largest part of Africa, the Western Hemisphere, and nearly all the islands of the sea were unknown to the Europeans of the fifteenth century.

**2. Causes of this Ignorance.** — The savage nature of the tribes inhabiting some of these regions kept them from associating with the civilized nations. The vessels of that time were crude and unsea-

worthy, and there existed a superstitious fear of things unknown. The means of communication between one nation and another were poor, both because of the difficulty in travelling, and because of the differences in languages and the labor involved in writing manuscripts. The sailors of the time were willing to make voyages only where the shore could be kept constantly in sight. As the compass was not in general use, they had to depend upon the sun and stars for guidance. Their trips were confined mostly to the Mediterranean Sea, though a few of the more venturesome made voyages between Spain and England, keeping close all the way to the shore of France.

**3 Voyages of the Northmen.** — In spite of these apprehensions, some of the bolder sailors among the nations of northern Europe, partly by accident, and partly from very foolhardiness, had reached countries hitherto unknown. The inhabitants of what is now Norway were called Norsemen, and are famous in history for their warlike nature and their bold seamanship. The people dwelling along the sea-coasts of England and Scotland, and of that portion of France now called Normandy, were in constant fear of these Northmen, who, without a moment's warning, would sail down upon them, and not only plunder them of their possessions, but frequently carry them away captive. These hardy voyagers were the discoverers of Iceland during the ninth century, being driven there by severe storms. Making a settlement, they were able, in the next hundred

**Old Stone Mill.** — In Touro Park, Newport, R. I., stands a "circular stone tower, with round arches," which has been called the "Round Tower," or the "Old Stone Mill." The tradition has been current that it was built by the Northmen during the eleventh century. This explanation is not generally accepted at the present time, as it has been clearly shown that it was a colonial windmill. Towers similar in appearance are still standing in those portions of Great Britain, from which some of the settlers of Rhode Island emigrated.

years, to go even farther from the beaten tracks, and to discover and make a temporary colony on the shores of Greenland. Not even with this remote island did these bold navigators end their voyages. In the "Sagas," or stories sung by the Norse bards, which are like the Greek songs of Homer, accounts have been found of voyages beyond Greenland to a most delightful country, abounding in wild grapes, and thence called Vinland.

**4. Leif Ericson's Discovery.** — The first visit to Vinland was made, in the year **1000**, by a Norseman called Leif, the son of Eric. Many think that Leif and his companions, sailing from Greenland, passed along by the coasts of Labrador, Nova Scotia, and Maine, and landed somewhere in southern Massachusetts or Rhode Island. The Sagas report that one or more winters were spent in this delightful region, and that the voyagers then returned home, and told the stories of what they had found. Because this Norseman came to the shores of New England at a time so early in history, the credit of discovering America is sometimes given to him. The discovery was not followed by other voyages, however, and the fact of the existence of land to the westward of Europe continued to be unknown to the inhabitants of the Old World. In those days, not only was communication between nations very difficult, but also the art of printing had not been discovered; and the Norse Sagas were handed down by word of mouth, as they had not been committed to writing.

In De Costa's "Pre-Columbian Discovery of America by the Northmen," are given quotations from the Icelandic Sagas. A portion of one of these runs as follows: "It happened one evening that a man of the party was missing, and it was the south countryman, Tyrker. . . . Leif . . . proposed to go to find him; but they had only gone a short way from the station when Tyrker came to meet them. . . . Leif said to him, 'Why art thou so late, my foster-father? and why didst thou leave thy comrades?' . . . After a while, and some delay, he said in Norse, 'I did not go much further than they; and yet I have something altogether new to relate, for I have found vines and grapes.' 'Is that true, my foster-father?' said Leif. 'Yes, true it is,' answered he, 'for I was born where there was no scarcity of grapes.' They slept all night, and the next morning Leif said to his men, 'Now we shall have two occupations to attend to . . . namely, to gather grapes or cut vines, and to fell wood in the forest to lade our vessel.'"

**5. Trade with India.** — There were many reasons which tended to make the year **1492** rather than the year **1000** the date of the discovery of America. The voyage of Leif to the shores of New England was not made with any definite purpose, nor did it produce any valuable results. The establishment of the printing-press, the scattering of the learned men of the Eastern Roman Empire

throughout Europe, at the fall of Constantinople, and the consequent formation of schools, came later than the time of Eric. The trade that had sprung up between India and Europe by caravan to the Mediterranean, and thence by vessel to the ports of Venice and Genoa, was the main incentive to the voyage which resulted in the discovery of a new continent. Silks, spices, and precious stones were being brought in great abundance when the pirates, with whom the Mediterranean Sea had long been infested, nearly brought the commerce to an end, by their captures of these richly laden vessels. The conquest of Constantinople by the Turks, in **1453**, was the last blow to the trade between India and Genoa. The question at once presented itself, whether a new route was possible. The Portuguese attempted to find a way by sailing south, along the west shore of Africa, around the southern point, and thence north again to India. Bartolomeo Diaz, a Portuguese captain, discovered the "Cape of Storms," or, as it is now called, the Cape of Good Hope, in 1487. The first voyage to India was made ten years later, and five years after the discovery of America, when Da Gama, another Portuguese sailor, reached the land of spices, by sailing around the coast of Africa.

**Printing.** — "In Europe, as late as the second half of the fourteenth century, every book (including school and prayer books), and every public and private document, proclamation, bull, letter, etc., was written by hand; all figures and pictures, even playing-cards and images of saints, were drawn with the pen or painted with a brush. . . . When all this writing, transcribing, illuminating, etc., had reached their period of greatest development, the art of printing from wooden blocks on silk, cloth, vellum, and paper made its appearance in Europe. . . . The invention of printing with movable metal types took place at Haarlem about the year 1444, by Lourens Janszoon Coster." (Typography: Encyclopædia Britannica. Vol. XXIII., Ninth Ed.) The art of printing spread rapidly; and, by the time of Columbus, nearly every European city of any prominence had introduced the printing-press.

**6. Christopher Columbus.** — The Italian boy, Cristoforo Colombo, or, as the Latin form of his name is the more common, Christopher Columbus, was born in Genoa about the year 1436, and spent most of his life, after early boyhood, upon the sea. He was an excellent sailor, for his time, and a man unusually well read, capable of thinking for himself. He was ready to accept new ideas when made clear to him, and was possessed of much less than the usual amount of superstition. He had made many voyages himself, and, loyal to his native city, was eager to find a new route to India. He had accepted the theory, held in those days by only a few of the most

learned men, that the world was round. He not only believed it with his head, but also with his heart; and, thoroughly imbued with this belief, nothing could turn him from the idea that he could reach India by sailing westward, across the unknown Atlantic.

Old Stone Mill at Newport, R. I.

**7. The Preparation.** — Columbus was right in his belief that the earth was round, and not flat, but was in error in regard to the distance to be travelled in reaching Asia by sailing west from Europe. He had made his own estimate of the size of the world, and thought that India must be but a few hundred miles west of Spain, or a less distance even than the width of the Atlantic. It was fortunate that he deemed the distance so small; otherwise, he might never have sailed.

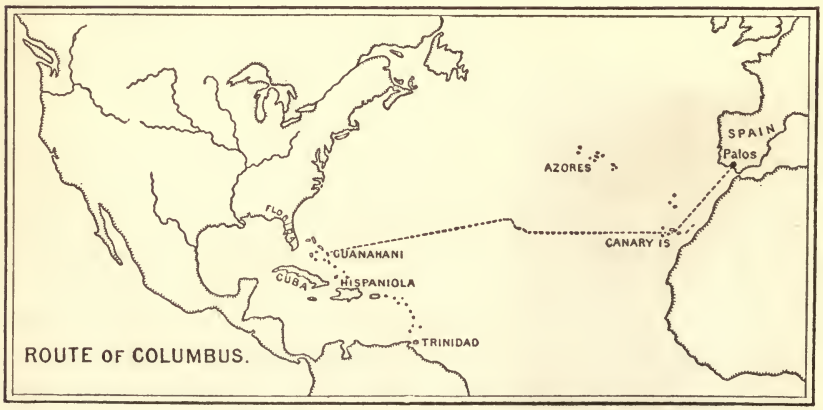
Queen Isabella.

The story of his attempts to obtain the means for this desired voyage is a very interesting one. Only a poor sailor, with no influence at court, he nevertheless tried his fortunes with the authorities of the city of Genoa, at the court of the king of Portugal, with the king of England, and at last with Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. The learned men at these courts opposed him. They talked of the "Sea of Darkness," and derided his notion as to the shape

of the earth. If he sailed down, how could he sail up again? This was an argument that seemed to them unanswerable. Columbus was ready to give up, and retired from court; but, for some unknown reason, Queen Isabella called him back, had another conference with him, and finally decided to grant his request. He was furnished with means to fit out three small vessels, and, with the aid of a family of merchants, Pinzon by name, Columbus was soon ready to set out from the port of Palos.

Christopher Columbus.
(After a painting in the Marine Museum, Madrid.)

**8. The Voyage.** — This small fleet of three vessels, carrying but ninety sailors and thirty noblemen and priests, set sail on a voyage of uncertainty, on the 3d of August, 1492. Columbus headed first for the Canary Isles, the last known




land to the westward, and remained there until the 6th of September, repairing the damages already received by the vessels. From

here he sailed west, and almost immediately found himself surrounded by mutinous seamen. The common sailors of the fifteenth century were very superstitious; and, as they left known lands and seas farther and farther behind them, they feared more and more the hideous monsters of their dreams. They dreaded the falling-off place at the end of the world, and the impossibility, as they thought, of ever being able to sail up the curve of the earth. Columbus showed his strength of character by the way he treated these sailors, and prevailed upon them to continue. He spoke of the wealth which lay ahead of them, of the punishment that would be theirs if they returned empty-handed, and finally promised to turn back if land was not seen within a certain time. At last, on the **12th of October, 1492,** Columbus and his men sighted, not India, nor one of its islands, but an island belonging to a hitherto unknown continent. In the morning, with all due pomp and ceremony, the leader landed, knelt and kissed the soil, planted the banner of Spain, and took possession, in the name of Ferdinand and Isabella, of an island which was called Guanahani. He continued his voyage a few days; discovered Cuba and others of the West Indies; and returned to Palos to be received with almost royal honors.

**Columbus's Later Life.** — After Columbus had spent a few months in visiting other islands in the neighborhood of Guanahani, he set sail for Spain in January, 1493 After a stormy voyage of about three months he arrived at the Spanish city of Barcelona. Here a triumphant entry was accorded him, and in the procession were strange Indians, unknown birds, and rich goods which he had brought from the "Indies." He was received in state by Ferdinand and Isabella, and was granted the honor of personally giving an account of his voyages to the royal court.

On the second voyage, Columbus was made ruler of the Island of Hispaniola; but afterwards he was arrested and carried back to Spain in chains. The queen had pity on him, and set him free, but did not allow him to return to his colony. He made a third and a fourth voyage, and on one of these he discovered the river Orinoco and the mainland of South America. Columbus died in poverty, unattended by any friends, May 20, 1506.

Columbus crossing the Atlantic.

# CHAPTER II.

## ALONG THE COAST.

**9. The Cabots.** — The report of the wonderful voyage of Columbus spread over Europe, and other nations besides the Spaniards became interested in the discovery. England, France, and Portugal followed the lead of Spain; and from the ports of these countries hardy seamen were soon sailing westward in search of unknown shores. Among the first of these were two Italians, father and son, who sailed under the English flag. John Cabot, a citizen of Venice, received a commission from Henry VII., the king of England. This patent gave him permission to fit out vessels at his own expense, but required him to pay one-fifth of all his profits to King Henry. If he discovered any new land, he was to take possession of it in the name of the king of England.

In the year 1497, five years after the discovery made by Columbus, John Cabot and his son Sebastian came in sight of the continent of North America, and landed on the coast of Labrador, far to the north of the United States. The next year, 1498, under a second patent from King Henry, Cabot made another voyage, and not merely reached the American continent, but sailed from Labrador, along the United States coast, to a point as far south as Maryland or Virginia. These two voyages, one discovering the continent, the other exploring the coast, gave England a claim to the land, which later received her sons and daughters, and has furnished a home for a large portion of the Anglo-Saxon race.

**10. America.** — Near the close of the fifteenth century, an Italian, by the name of Amerigo Vespucci, made three or four voyages, following in the track of Columbus. This man wrote of the "New World," thus indicating that he did not believe, as did Columbus, that India had been reached. A friend of Amerigo, hearing of his expression, suggested that the new world should be named America for him. Thus the honor that doubtless should have gone to Columbus, the real discoverer, was granted to a man who would otherwise have remained practically unknown.

**11. Balboa.** — Two other great discoveries were made during the early portion of the sixteenth century, before the western route to India, that Columbus sought, was found. Vasco Nuñez de Balboa, a Spaniard, had been made governor of Darien, in Central America. Stories had come to him of the fabulous wealth of Peru, and he determined to set out on a search for gold. He was doomed to disappointment in this search, but in 1513, from the top of a ridge

First Sight of Land.

of mountains in Central America, Balboa was the first European to look out upon the broad expanse of the Pacific Ocean. As it lay to the south, he named it the "South Sea." He thus ascertained that the continent which lay between Europe and Asia was, at least in one place, very narrow. By this discovery, he strengthened the ardor of Europeans to find a passage through the land that appeared to be but an obstacle in their way.

**12. Magellan.** — Since the time of Balboa there have been many attempts to find a water route through America. Sometimes a northwest passage was sought; sometimes a southwest passage; and to-day, a canal across the narrow portion of the continent seems an absolute necessity. Ferdinand Magellan, a Portuguese by birth, but at the time in charge of a Spanish fleet, was the first to find a passage through the continent, and no other has yet been obtained. Magellan set out in the fall of 1519, and late in the year 1520 sailed through the straits, near the southern limit of South America, which have received his name. As he passed out of the stormy Straits of Magellan into the quieter waters of the great ocean, he gave to that body of water, which Balboa had called the "South Sea," the name of the Pacific. After a voyage of more than three years, one of the vessels of the fleet, under the command of Sebastian del Cano, returned to the same harbor of Spain: having reached India, and been the first to sail around the world, doubling the Cape of Good Hope on her return voyage.

**13. Ponce de Leon.** — About the time of Balboa's fruitless search for gold, another Spaniard determined to seek a boon more valuable as well as more fabulous. Juan Ponce de Leon set sail from Porto Rico in search of the fountain of perpetual youth, which was reported to furnish renewed health to all that bathed in its healing waters. He failed to find what he sought, but yet obtained the credit of being the first to set foot upon the shores of the southern portion of the United States. In the year 1513, Ponce first saw land on Easter Sunday, a day which is called Pascua Florida in Spanish, and he called the beautiful land Florida.

**14. Ferdinand de Soto.** — The desire to find marvellous gold mines in Florida caused Ferdinand de Soto, the governor of Cuba, to make an exploring expedition through Florida and the region north of the Gulf of Mexico. He landed at Tampa Bay in 1539, and marched through portions of all the Gulf States. After two years of great suffering, he reached the shores of the Mississippi River not far from the present city of Memphis. De Soto was the first European to view this, the most important river of the world, and after another year's march through Missouri, Arkansas, and Louisiana, he reached the river again, only to die and to be buried in its waters. Of the six hundred that left Cuba with enthusiasm

and energy, about three hundred men returned, worn out and disheartened, after a four years' journey.

**15. Drake.** — There was a long interval after the voyages of the Cabots before any other attempts were made to extend the influence of England upon the new continent. Sir Francis Drake was the first Englishman to explore the Pacific coast, and to look upon the land that now forms the western extent of the United States. He was an adventurer, and was traversing the Pacific Ocean, seeking to obtain wealth by attacking Spanish merchant vessels. After obtaining immense treasures, he followed along the coast in 1579 as far as Oregon, named the country New Albion, and returned to England by way of the Cape of Good Hope, being the second to sail around the world. England acquired her first claims to the territory of the present United States and British America by the explorations of the Cabots along the Atlantic, and of Drake along the Pacific coast.

## CHAPTER III.

### CANADA AND CAROLANA.

**16. Early French Voyages.** — The discoveries of Columbus and the Cabots had their influence upon the French as well as upon the Spanish and the English. As early as the first years of the sixteenth century the hardy fishermen of eastern France had learned of the fisheries of Newfoundland and the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Not only were voyages made for the purpose of obtaining fish, but, as early as the year 1524, efforts were made to explore the coast and to find suitable localities for colonization.

John Verrazano, an Italian, was sent out by King Francis I. to investigate these new countries and to bring back word if they could be made of use to the French people. This bold voyager not only passed over a course which included the route of the Cabots (¶ 9), but also made careful explorations and carried home the earliest account of the coast that has been preserved. His explorations extended from the latitude of Wilmington, N. C., to the Gulf of St. Lawrence. He entered the harbors of New York and Newport, and investigated the

characteristics of the country. The chart that Verrazano made, as a result of this voyage, was of great value to many of the later explorers.

**17. Cartier.** — A few years after the first voyage of Verrazano, a decided effort was made to establish a French colony on the new continent. James Cartier was given command of an expedition that left St. Malo, France, in the spring of 1534, and, passing around Newfoundland, he entered the great bay since called the St. Lawrence. He was the first to sail up the great river of Canada, and his voyage resulted in turning French attention to that country. Cartier made another expedition the next year, with the design of establishing a colony. On this voyage he explored the St. Lawrence as far as navigation permitted, gave to a hill on the island of Hochelaga the name of Mont-Real, and spent the winter on the island of Orleans. The fearful cold of this northern region, combined with want of proper food, caused much sickness during this winter, and the surviving members of the party were very glad to return home in the spring. They carried most unfavorable reports of the country, and for a time nothing further was attempted in the way of exploration or colonization.

**18. The Huguenots.** — The sixteenth century is noted especially for the great Reformation. Luther and Calvin are the best known of those men who were dissatisfied with the religion of the day, and were opposed to the errors that seemed to them inseparable from its forms. In France, the theories of Calvin obtained a strong foothold, and near the middle of the century a persecution was begun against the Huguenots, as the followers of Calvin in France were called. Admiral Coligny was one of the leaders of the Protestant party, and he conceived the idea of founding a colony on the coast of America, where the persecuted Huguenots might find refuge. In 1562, he obtained from the boy-king, Charles IX., the necessary authority, and sent forth a squadron to seek for a suitable location for settlement.

**Gaspard de Coligny** was born in 1517, and was made Admiral of France before he was forty years of age. He was an ardent Huguenot, and the continuous religious wars in France led him to plan the formation of Huguenot colonies in some portion of the New World. Besides the two parties sent out under Ribault and Laudonnière, Coligny attempted to make a settlement in Brazil. In one of the civil wars a price of fifty thousand crowns was set upon the admiral's head, but within a year a temporary peace was made. The great massacre of St. Bartholomew occurred on August 24, 1572, and Coligny was the first to be put to death, at the age of fifty-five.

**19. Port Royal.** — Remembering the failures of Cartier, John Ribault, the leader of the expedition, sought a warmer climate, and the first land seen was near the northern line of Florida. He sailed along the coast, naming the streams as he passed them, and made a settlement at what appeared to be the mouth of a great river. Near the southern end of the shore of South Carolina lies the harbor of Port Royal, and here the French built a fort and started a colony. The name of Charles, or Carolana, was given to the fort, in honor of the king, and this name was afterward applied to the whole region. The leader returned with the ships to France, for the purpose of obtaining reinforcements, leaving twenty-six persons to hold possession of the country. The continued religious wars in France prevented the sending of supplies and men, and, after a few months of waiting, the colonists set out for home in a vessel built by themselves. They had nearly lost their lives from famine when an English vessel met them and carried them away captive.

**20. Fort Caroline.** — Coligny was not disheartened by this failure, and, during the truce in France, obtained the consent of the king to another expedition. In 1564, a fleet set sail, under the leadership of Laudonnière, to seek another harbor where a settlement could be made. The vessels were turned to the River of May, which the earlier party had observed, and there another Fort Caroline was built. This river, which is now called the St. Johns, lay within the territory of Florida, which the Spaniards had already discovered and explored. This fact was enough to cause serious trouble, even if the colony had nothing else to contend with. The character of the emigrants was the most important obstacle in the way, however, as the larger number of them were dissolute men, unable and unwilling to yield to the necessary rules of government. The colony lasted but about a year, being overthrown by the Spaniards, who had made a neighboring settlement at St. Augustine.

**21. St. Augustine.** — More than fifty years passed after the discovery of Florida by Ponce de Leon (¶ 13) before the Spaniards made any serious attempt at colonization of the country. Perhaps fifty years more would have passed, had not the settlement of French Huguenots appealed both to the patriotism and the bigotry of the Spanish king, Philip II. Pedro Menendez was a Spanish soldier, bigoted and cruel as his king; and to him was committed

the opportunity to conquer these weak colonists and to make a Spanish settlement. Menendez sailed from Spain in 1565, and reached the coast of Florida on the day held sacred to St. Augustine. Finding an excellent harbor, he gave it the name of the saint, and, on **September 8th, 1565**, laid the foundation of St. Augustine, the oldest town in the United States.

Philip II., king of Spain, was born in 1527, and occupied the throne from 1556 until 1598. His father, Charles V., was not only king of Spain, but also "Emperor of the Romans," and ruler over Spain, Portugal, Italy, Germany, and the Netherlands. Philip succeeded to but a portion of his father's dominion, and was always plotting to regain the authority. He was an ardent believer in the Roman Catholic religion and the authority of the Pope. He persecuted the inhabitants of the Netherlands for their religion, until they revolted from his authority. The long eighty years' war began early in his reign, and he spent boundless wealth in the vain attempt to subjugate the Dutch. He died in 1598, after a long and painful illness.

**22. Religious Wars.** — When Ribault learned of the Spanish settlement, he decided, after much deliberation, to take the offensive and make an attack upon the intruders. As the French fleet left the harbor of Fort Caroline a severe storm arose, which destroyed nearly all the vessels, though but few of the men were lost. The Spanish fleet did not suffer so much, and, before the French could reach Fort Caroline again, Menendez had surprised the fort and captured it. The Huguenot prisoners, men, women, and children, were at once massacred, a few only escaping to the woods. The Spanish fleet soon met and captured the French vessels that had not been destroyed, and the captives were taken to St. Augustine. Here all of the Huguenots, with the exception of a few mechanics who were held as slaves, were immediately hung. At this time France was at peace with Spain, and Menendez claimed that these people were put to death, "Not as Frenchmen, but as Lutherans."

Old Gateway at St. Augustine.

**23. Revenge.** — The French colony was entirely swept out of

existence, and no further attempt has ever been made by the French to settle this portion of the New World. The French government paid no attention to these acts of the Spaniards, and the only punishment ever received was given by a single Frenchman, on his own responsibility. Dominic de Gourgues captured the fort which the Spaniards had built on the site of Fort Caroline, but was unable to hold it. He hung his prisoners, placing over their heads, in mockery of Menendez, "I do not this as unto Spaniards or mariners, but as unto traitors, robbers, and murderers." While the French abandoned Carolana, or French Florida, as it was sometimes called, the Spaniards retained possession, and Florida remained a Spanish colony until 1763 (¶ 160).

## CHAPTER IV.

### GILBERT AND RALEIGH.

**24. English Colonization.** — The sympathies of a large number of the people of England were aroused in behalf of the persecuted Huguenots during the terrible religious wars. After Henry VIII., king of England, had withdrawn his nation from its connection with the Roman Catholic Church, many of England's leading citizens lent their aid to their fellow-Protestants in France. Thus the unsuccessful attempts of the Huguenots to settle Florida turned the attention of certain English noblemen to the advantages of an English colony on the American shores. When Queen Elizabeth came to the throne of England, the hatred of the English people toward Spaniards had become so intensified that the enthusiasm to obtain from America the resources which Spain was acquiring was greatly increased (¶ 15). The idea of finding a northwest passage to India also entered, to a great extent, into the calculations of the English adventurers. At the beginning of the last quarter of the sixteenth century the time was ready for the English to begin that colonization which was finally to overpower that of the French and the Spanish.

**25. Labrador.** — The first attempt at colonization was made by Martin Frobisher. The great thought in his mind was similar to that of Columbus; namely, a new route to India. He claimed that the finding of a northwest passage through America to Asia was "the only thing of the world, that was yet left undone, by which a notable minde might be made famous and fortunate." His fleet of three small vessels left the Thames in 1576; but one was lost in a storm, a second turned back from fear, and, with but one vessel, Frobisher reached the coast of Labrador, near the entrance to Hudson Bay.

The straits which he discovered appeared to be the passage that he sought, and a stone which he carried back to England caused great excitement, because it was thought to contain gold. This voyage was followed two years later by an expedition for the purpose of leaving a colony to search for the gold which was confidently believed to exist in great quantities on this northern coast. Icebergs crushed some of the vessels, some were lost in the fogs, but Frobisher finally reached the harbor. The idea of forming a settlement was abandoned, the vessels were loaded with the valueless cargo of earth, and returned at once. Thus the first plan of settlement by the English on the coast of America proved only an utter failure.

**26. Gilbert.** — Sir Humphrey Gilbert was the second Englishman to plan a settlement. He obtained a favorable charter from the queen, and began to collect a body of men who volunteered to help establish the colony which he desired. He sailed in 1583, and, after having lost his largest vessel by desertion, reached Newfoundland in August. His first act was to take official possession of the island in the name of the queen, and the second to load his vessels with "ore," which was supposed to contain silver. Gilbert was not satisfied with the situation, and soon sailed again to seek the shores of the mainland. A storm wrecked the largest remaining vessel, the "ore" was lost, and the two small vessels that were left were compelled to sail for England. Gilbert's vessel, the "Squirrel," was lost on this return voyage, and he himself perished, while the "Hind" alone brought the disastrous news back to England.

**27. Raleigh.** — Gilbert's half-brother, Sir Walter Raleigh, had been interested in his adventures, and was ready to take up the

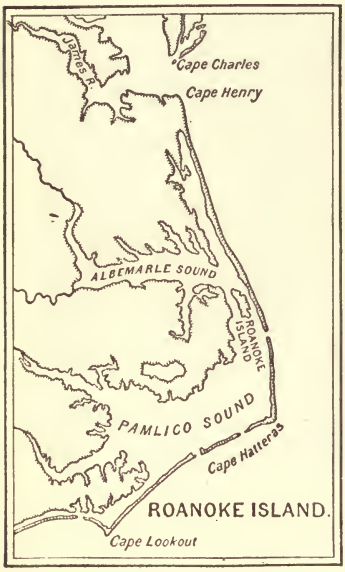
work which he had left. He had a personal knowledge of the Huguenots of France, and his thoughts turned to Carolana, as a region with a more suitable climate than that of Labrador or Newfoundland. He obtained another patent from Queen Elizabeth, and in 1584 sent out two vessels for the New World. They sailed first for the Canaries, thence to the West Indies, and from there reached the coast of Carolana, the whole voyage taking about nine weeks. They took possession of the land, and chose as a suitable place for their settlement the island of Roanoke. They then returned to England, and carried such favorable reports of the land they had found that it was an easy matter to obtain emigrants. Accordingly, the next year, 1585, seven vessels, with one hundred and eight colonists, set out for Virginia, as the Virgin Queen, Elizabeth, had named the lands. The colony was formed, the settlement made, and the fleet returned to England.

Sir Walter Raleigh.

**Sir Walter Raleigh** was born in Devonshire, England, in 1552. The part which he took in the campaign in Ireland in 1581 brought him to the attention of Queen Elizabeth, who continued to consider him as one of her favorite courtiers to the time of her death. Sir Walter was very much interested in the colonization of the "New World," and, besides his two unsuccessful attempts at Roanoke Island, in 1616 he explored the Orinoco River and the country called Guiana. On returning home, Raleigh was arrested on a charge of making an attack upon a Spanish village. He had not brought with him any of the expected gold, and, because of this, together with his unpopularity at the court of King James, he was sentenced for treason. He was accordingly executed, Oct. 29, 1618.

**28. Roanoke Island.** — The work of the colonists consisted mainly in a search for gold. The leaders obtained valuable information with regard to the geography of the region and the character of the inhabitants of the land They investigated the strange products of the soil, such as maize and tobacco, and when they returned to England carried samples with them. There were no farmers among them however, and hunting for precious metals was of no value in furnishing food. Time was wasted in a

search for the "South Sea" by sailing up the Roanoke River, and the colonists did not hesitate to deceive the Indians, and thus aroused their hostility. The strangeness of colonial life began to tell upon the men, and when Sir Francis Drake (¶ 15) entered Roanoke Inlet, in June, 1586, the colonists sought and obtained permission to return with him to England. This first settlement at Roanoke was thus suddenly brought to an end, having lasted but about a year.




**29. The Second Colony.** — The colonists had hardly sailed for home when vessels with supplies and reinforcements arrived to find the island deserted. The commander of the fleet left fifteen men upon the island, and returned to England for further instructions from Raleigh. A second colony was sent over the next year, 1587, better fitted to cope with the difficulties that must be encountered. Women were sent with the men, and some of the party were qualified to cultivate the land. The new expedition reached Roanoke in July, and decided to remain there, although the intention had been to try a new location upon Chesapeake Bay. The men that had been left at the settlement the previous year were missing, having doubtless been killed by the Indians, in retaliation for the treatment that they had received from the first colony.

**Tobacco.** — When the colonists returned to England in 1586, they carried with them a quantity of tobacco which they had learned to use from the Indians. Raleigh adopted the novel habit, and a story is current of the result that followed. It is related that a servant came into his master's room one day on an errand, and was terrified to find smoke coming from Raleigh's mouth. He threw a cup of ale, which he had in his hand, over his master's head, and ran out shouting that Raleigh was on fire and would soon be burned to ashes.

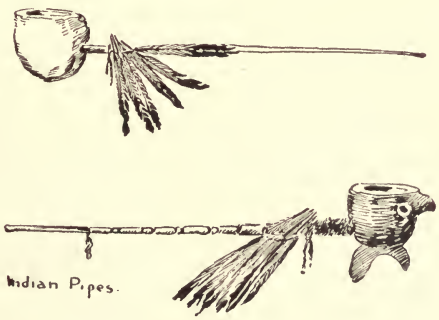
Governor White returned to England within a few weeks to ask for the supplies and reinforcements that the colonists deemed necessary, and left them without a leader. Before he departed, however, an interesting event took place, in the birth of his grand-

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

daughter. This little girl, Virginia Dare, the first English child born on this continent, was named after the place of her birth.

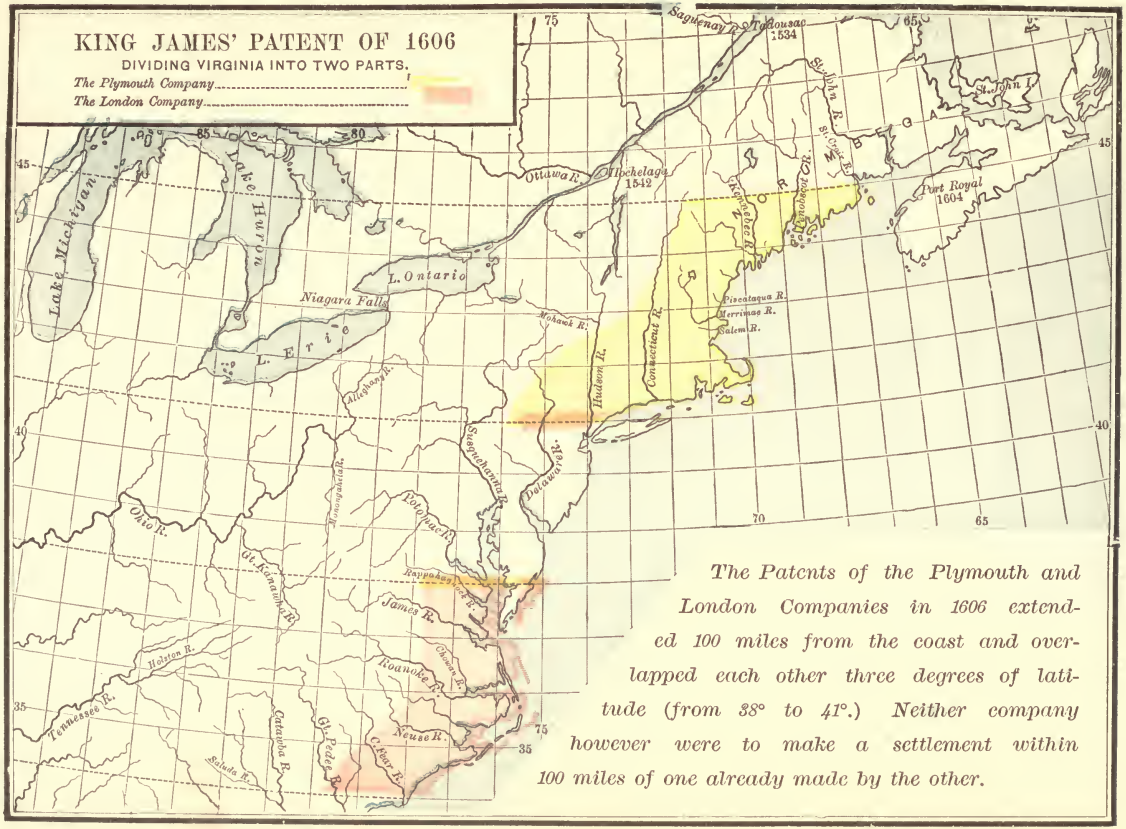
Three years passed before the wars in Europe permitted the sending of the needed supplies. In 1587, Governor White left a colony of eighty-nine men, seventeen women, and two children, on the island of Roanoke. In 1590, he returned to the New World to find no sign whatever of these people, among whom were his daughter and granddaughter, except a mark upon one of the trees, which was perhaps intended to direct them to a neighboring island. Nothing was found there, however, and the question has never been settled as to what became of the colonists. Either they were murdered by the Indians, or else, as recent investigations would seem to indicate, they were adopted as members of an Indian tribe.

**30. Gosnold.** — One more attempted settlement needs mention in this connection. Bartholomew Gosnold determined to try his fortune in colonizing America, or at least in aiding in the future settlement. He sailed in a single vessel direct to the New World, instead of by the roundabout route previously used, and in May, 1602, reached land near Cape Ann (¶ 57). Passing along the coast, he missed Boston and Plymouth harbors, and, doubling Cape Cod, came into Buzzard's Bay. Giving to an island, which the Indians called Cuttyhunk, the name of his queen, Elizabeth, he prepared to leave a colony. When the time for the departure of the vessel came, the men lost heart, and the fifth attempt at colonization also proved a failure.



Indian Pipes.

GREENLAND
ICELAND
BAFFIN BAY
Davis Strait
Frobisher St.
HUDSON BAY
LABRADOR
NEWFOUND LAND
AVALON
CAPE BRETON ISLAND
Louisburg
NOVA SCOTIA
Port Royal
Bay of Fundy
Quebec
Montreal (Hochelaga)
Frontenac
St. Lawrence R.
R. St. John
Boston
Plymouth
Newport
New Amsterdam
New Sweden
Philadelphia
Chesapeake Bay
JAMESTOWN
ROANOKE IS.
BERMUDA IS.
St. Lawrence R.
Ontario
NEW NETHERLANDS
VIRGINIA
St. Marie
Macinac
St. Xavier
Detroit
Wisconsin R.
Illinois R.
Maumee R.
Ft. Niagara
St. Anthony
Ft. St. Louis
Crevecoeur
Missouri R.
Vincennes
Wabash R.
Ohio R.
St. Louis
Kaskaskia
Arkansas R.
Mississippi R.
NEW ALBION
Sacramento R.
San Joaquin R.
Yerba Buena
Santa Fe
Colorado R.
Red R.
Natchitoches
New Orleans
Mobile
Biloxi
Port Royal
Ft. Caroline
St. Augustine
Tampa Bay
Rio Grande
TEXAS
MEXICO
GULF OF MEXICO
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GUANAHANI
CUBA
HAYTI
PORTO RICO
JAMAICA
SOUTH SEA
SOUTH AMERICA
EARLY DISCOVERIES.
EXPLORATIONS.
AND
SETTLEMENTS.




*The Patents of the Plymouth and London Companies in 1606 extended 100 miles from the coast and overlapped each other three degrees of latitude (from 38° to 41°.) Neither company however were to make a settlement within 100 miles of one already made by the other.*

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# SECTION II.

## PERMANENT SETTLEMENTS. 1606–1733.

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## CHAPTER V.

### ORGANIZED MOVEMENTS.

**31. The Condition of England.** — The beginning of the seventeenth century marked a new epoch in the history of England. The period of the Reformation was over, and England had taken her place as the great Protestant nation of the world. The Revival of Learning had had its day, and England was beginning to become known as one of the great nations of letters. The wars with Spain were at an end for a time, and England was laying the foundation of her future commercial supremacy. The water route to India had proved a valuable blessing, and England no longer needed to send out explorations to seek new passages to the rich countries of the East. The maddening eagerness to secure wealth by the mining of gold was lessening as the fact was becoming apparent that gold was not easy to find. The time was at hand when merchants would begin to recognize the fact that the mother country had commercial interests in forming colonies. The day was coming when philanthropic citizens would seek to establish places of refuge for the oppressed and the poor that lived in the overcrowded cities of England. The conditions were ready for the successful establishment of colonies.

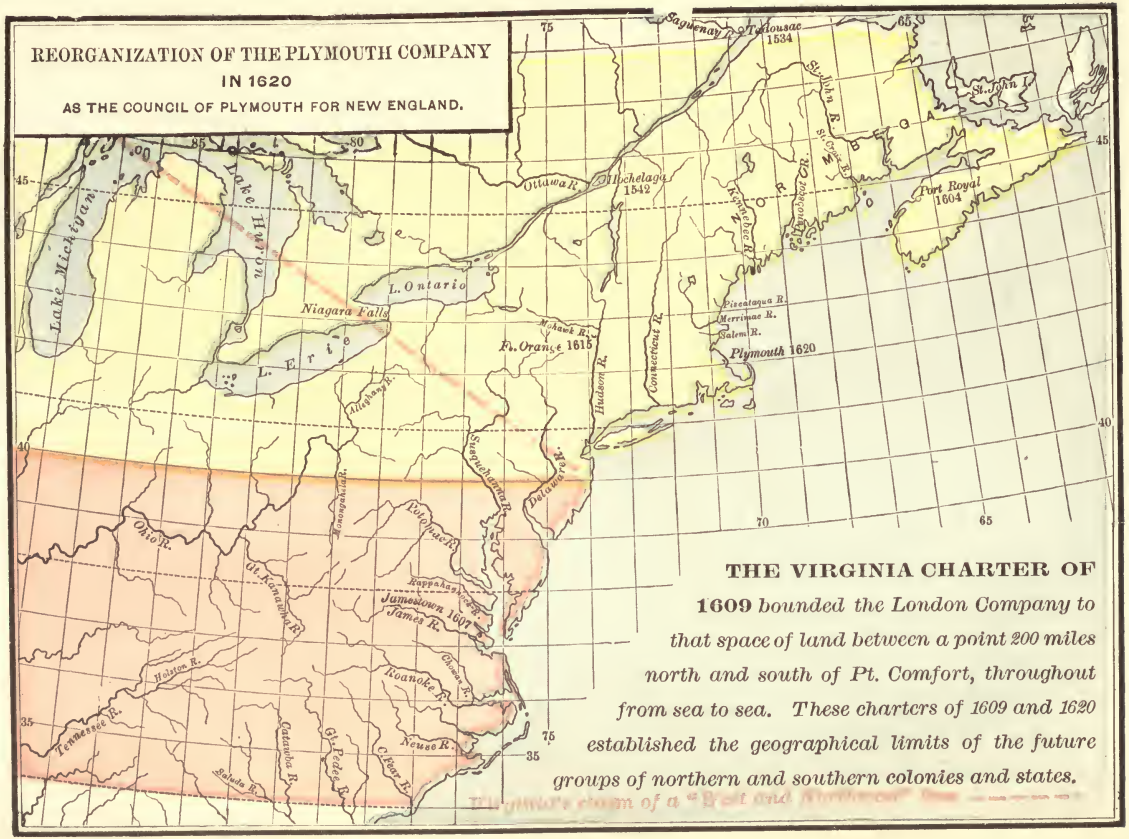
**32. The Company.** — Gosnold was not discouraged by his unsuccessful attempt at settlement within the limits of Virginia, and he returned to England with increased enthusiasm to try again. He considered that the cause of the failure of all the previous expe-

ditions lay in the lack of united action. He began at once to urge the merchants of his acquaintance to form a company for the purpose of planting colonies in America. There were a few men in England who had an enthusiasm for colonization like that of Gilbert and Raleigh. Among them were Edward Maria Wingfield, Robert Hunt, John Smith, Sir Ferdinando Gorges, Sir John Popham, and Richard Hakluyt. These men made application to King James for a charter to authorize them to form a company to make settlements in Virginia. The king granted their request, and issued the first colonial charter in **1606**.

**33. The Grant.** — By this charter the company was divided; the members who were in and around London were to make the First or Southern Company of Virginia; those merchants and gentlemen who had their headquarters at Plymouth, England, were to form the Second or Northern Company of Virginia. To these companies was assigned all the land between Cape Fear, or the 34th parallel of latitude, and the St. Croix River, or the 45th parallel. The land granted was to extend back a distance of one hundred miles from the coast and was to belong entirely to these two companies. The territory south of the Rappahannock, or parallel 38°, was granted to the London Company; that north of New York City, or parallel 41°, to the Plymouth Company. The land between the two territories, from parallel 38° to parallel 41°, was to be common property, except that neither company should make settlement within one hundred miles of the other.

**John Smith** begins the preface to his "Generall Historie" with the following paragraph: "This plaine Historie humbly sheweth the truth; that our most royall King *Iames* hath place and opportunitie to enlarge his ancient *Dominions* without wronging any; (which is a condition most agreeable to his most iust and pious resolutions): and the Prince his *Highness* may see where to plant new colonies. The gaining Prouinces addeth to the Kings Crown: But the reducing Heathen people to civilitie and true Religion, bringeth honour to the King of Heauen. If his Princely wisedome and powerfull hand, renowned through the world for admirable gouernment, please but to set these new Estates unto order; their composure will be singular; the counsell of divers is confused; the generall Stocke is consumed; nothing but the touch of the Kings sacred hand can erect a Monarchy."

**34. The Conditions.** — Many important rights were granted to these companies; very few to the colonists whom they should send. The entire control of the colonies to be formed rested with the companies in England; even the local government was in the hands of a council appointed from England. The king required

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from the companies that they should render due homage to him. He demanded of them, as rent, one-fifth of all the gold and silver mined, and one-fifteenth of all the copper. The only promise made to the emigrants was that they and their descendants should not cease to be Englishmen. Such were the terms of the "first written charter of a permanent American colony;" simply the charter of a mercantile corporation.

**35. The Southern Company.** — The Southern Company succeeded in making but one settlement, that of Jamestown, in 1607 (¶ 38). In 1609, the company received a second charter granting land further north, as far as Philadelphia, or the 40th parallel, and west to the "South Sea." In a few other respects, the conditions were changed by this charter, as well as by the third charter of 1612. In 1624, the company dissolved, and the settlement reverted to the king, as a royal colony.

**36. The Northern Company.** — The Northern Company failed in all its attempts to form a colony. The most notable effort was made under the special direction of Sir Ferdinando Gorges, in 1607. One hundred and twenty immigrants, under the lead of George Popham, arrived at the mouth of the Kennebec River, and began a settlement, which they called St. George. The winter proved very severe, and, upon the death of the leader, the "Popham Colony" abandoned the plantation and returned to England. In 1620, the company was succeeded by the Council of Plymouth for New England, which received land further south, as far as Philadelphia, and north to the parallel of 48°, or the northern boundary of New Brunswick, and west to the "South Sea." This council also failed in its purpose, and, in 1635, the members divided the land among themselves and thus surrendered their company rights. Though the results seem so meagre, the first steps had been taken, and the work of colonization went steadily on, without regard to the companies. New charters were granted, and within eighty years twelve English colonies lined the coast from the 32d to the 45th parallel of latitude.

Indian Bow and Arrow

# CHAPTER VI.

## VIRGINIA.

**37. The Fleet.**—The London Company was more vigorous than the Plymouth, and had its colonists on the way before the close of the year 1606. The leaders of the company had little difficulty in finding volunteers, and the three vessels fitted out were ready to sail in December. The contrast between the "Susan Constant," the largest vessel of the fleet, and an ocean greyhound of to-day is very great. The "Constant" was of one hundred tons' burden, while the "Good Speed" carried but forty tons, and the little pinnace "Discovery," twenty. The voyagers, about one hundred in number, were brave men to undertake the journey, which would occupy about four months, over seas so seldom traversed. The fleet sailed from London, December 19th, 1606, and took the southern course, via the West Indies. Captain Christopher Newport was in command, and among the party were Gosnold, Smith, and Wingfield. A storm prevented them from landing on Roanoke Island, as they had intended, and drove them northward as far as Chesapeake Bay.

Ruins of the Settlement at Jamestown, Va.

**38. Land Reached.** — The refuge which they found in this bay proved of so much "comfort" to them, after the severity of the storm, that the name of Point Comfort was given to the land. As the vessels passed into the bay, the leaders named the capes on either side in honor of the two sons of King James, and Cape Henry and Cape Charles they are still called. Soon the fleet started up the beautiful river, which they termed the James, and a spot for the town was chosen on its banks. **May 13th, 1607,** the colonists landed, and at once began to lay the foundations of Jamestown. The place selected was not suitable for a colony, and to-day the ruins of a church are all that mark its site and designate the spot where the first permanent English settlement was made.

**John Smith's** life covered the period from 1580 to 1631. His own account of his life previous to the year 1604 makes a story more exciting and apparently impossible than any fiction. During the six years beginning with 1596, he travelled in Holland, Scotland, France, Italy, Egypt, Hungary, Germany, and Prussia, until he joined an expedition against the Turks. In the Turkish war he performed many deeds of great valor, but was captured in 1602. After suffering cruel treatment as a slave by Turks, Moors, and Tartars, he finally made his escape, and, travelling alone through Muscovy, Hungary, and Austria, he arrived in Leipsic, in December, 1603. His trip from here back to England was most round-about, and on reaching home he immediately entered heartily into the idea of colonizing Virginia.

**39. The Men.** — The London Company was a body of merchants united mainly for the sake of gain. If the colony which they sent out should bring back gold in abundance, or should find a Northwest Passage, it would be considered a successful adventure. No special plans were formed to establish a farming community, nor were arrangements made whereby the colonists could obtain the necessary food. "Nobles, gentlemen, carpenters, laborers, boys," were among the voyagers, but no women. The nobles and gentlemen were unaccustomed to labor with their hands. The carpenters, laborers, and boys could dig for gold, and search for precious stones, but they could not furnish provisions.

The leaders were not all wise, and their mistakes were often very serious. The members of the council had been chosen by

the company (¶ 34) before the fleet sailed from England. The appointments were kept secret, however, and the names of the seven had been placed in a sealed box. When this box was opened after the arrival, in accordance with directions, it was found that Wingfield was made president, and that Gosnold, Smith, Newport, Ratcliffe, Martin, and Kendall, together with the president, composed the council. Had the president and all the council possessed the ability and the strength of character of Smith and Gosnold, the early period of the colony might have been more prosperous than it was.

Captain John Smith.
(From the history of Virginia, by Captain John Smith.)

**40. First Days.** — The colonists had found a home and at once began to prepare places in which to live. Tents were used, and in the warm days of late spring but little covering was needed more than roofs of boughs to keep off sun and rain. A church was built, and the time was well spent in cutting trees, sawing logs and erecting houses. All things seemed prosperous, though the colony was in serious danger of sudden attacks from the Indians. A jealous fear of Smith appeared in the council, and he was threatened with the disgrace of being sent back to England. He demanded a trial in Virginia, and obtaining it was quickly acquitted of all charges. The military leader was thus saved to the colony, and the task of securing protection from the Indians was in safe hands.

**Captain Smith** entertained the same opinion with regard to the necessity of finding a passage through the continent, or a new route to India, as did most of the discoverers of that time. Soon after the arrival of the colonists at Jamestown, Smith started out on an exploring tour up the Chickahominy River. He did not find the Pacific Ocean, but instead was captured by the Indians. A few years later he made an expedition up the Chesapeake Bay, with the same purpose in view, but again he failed. After one more trial he seems to have abandoned his attempts to find what has since received the name of the Northwest Passage. The rest of the explorations which he made, not only in Chesapeake Bay, but also along the Atlantic coast, resulted in the formation of maps which, though of no value to-day, were especially helpful to the seafaring men of the early part of the seventeenth century.

**41. The First Summer.** — The new-comers arrived during the beautiful month of May, and for a few weeks all the immigrants were charmed with this land of flowers in its season of beauty. Soon, however, the heat of summer, to which they were unaccustomed, and the malaria that arose from the marshy banks of the James, began to cause fatal sicknesses among them. An epidemic of disease followed, and this, together with a scarcity of food, nearly carried away the whole colony. Those who succeeded in escaping the disease were too few to care properly for the sick, and it was almost impossible to obtain decent burial for those who died. About fifty, or nearly one-half of the settlement, perished, and among them the leading spirit of the colony, Bartholomew Gosnold. The president was unable to meet the terrible emergency, and the strength and ability of John Smith alone carried the colony along until the frosts of the autumn checked the disease. Lack of food caused hardship during the winter, but the awful sickness was over at last.

Pocahontas.
(After an old anonymous print.)

**42. Pocahontas.**—Captain John Smith was not only a soldier and statesman, but also an author, and from his writings much of the information concerning early Virginia has been obtained. He tells a story of an expedition which he made up the James River, and the way in which he was separated from his companions. He recounts that he was captured by the Indians and carried before their chief, Powhatan. After a time he was condemned to death, and was only rescued because of the prayers of Pocahontas, the daughter of the Indian emperor. His life was saved, and after spending the winter with the Indians, he reached Jamestown at a time when his presence was much needed.

Soon after, as the warm weather came on, the colonists feared that

Pocahontas saves the life of Captain John Smith.

the disasters of the preceding summer were to be repeated. But a company of Indians arrived, under the command of Pocahontas, and brought an abundance of food. The good-will of the Indian girl is proved by this act, and she thus saved the lives of many of the colonists.

**43. The Bermudas.** — The little colony, though it had passed through the terrible epidemic, and though the Indians seemed to be more friendly, was still in serious danger of failure. The colonists were not ready to work; they were eager for adventure; they were crazed to search for gold; they had no love for the soil; they had no true homes; they were more ready to return than to stay. Just at this time, the king granted the second charter to the London Company (¶ 35), and Sir Thomas West, Lord Delaware, was appointed the new governor.

In May, 1609, a fleet of nine vessels, with needed supplies and a large number of colonists, this time including women and children, sailed from England. Disaster still followed the fortunes of the London Company, the fleet encountering a severe storm when nearly at the end of the voyage. One vessel was lost, and the flag-ship, the "Sea Venture," containing the lieutenant-governor, Sir Thomas Gates, and the admiral, Sir George Somers, was separated from the other vessels and finally wrecked on the Bermuda Islands. The passengers reached land safely and spent a very enjoyable nine months on this island, which seemed to them a perfect paradise. At length, in May, 1610, having built two small vessels from the wreck of the "Sea Venture," they sailed again, reaching Virginia in about a fortnight.

**Pocahontas** continued to aid the colonists for many years after she saved the life of John Smith. When the Indian princess had reached the age of eighteen the people of Jamestown became angry with Powhatan, the emperor, and stole Pocahontas, carrying her away as a prisoner. She remained at Jamestown as a surety of her father's good conduct, and here an Englishman, named John Rolfe, fell in love with her. He offered to marry the girl and won the consent of the "princess" as well as that of the emperor. Pocahontas was baptized in the little church at Jamestown and then married under the name of Rebecca. On visiting England a few years later she received a very cordial welcome, and her modesty and correct behavior brought her praise on every hand. She died from an attack of small-pox, leaving a son, whose descendants have been among the leaders of the colony of Virginia.

**44. The Despair.** — While the leaders of the new party were spending their time on the islands in the middle of the Atlantic, disaster and ruin were coming fast to the colonists at Jamestown. The seven vessels that survived the storm came into the Chesa-

peake with scanty supplies, and with no leaders. Confusion followed, and again the struggle began between those willing to perform the necessary labor and the sluggards. Smith was compelled to return to England, broken in health, and his advice and judgment were lost to the colony. When Gates, the lieutenant-governor, arrived from the Bermudas, he found a company nearly famished from hunger, and the settlement passing through a period of suffering almost as severe as that of the first summer. He and his party were able to bring them no aid, and despair entered their hearts at the terrible condition of affairs. Gates and Somers decided to give up the colony, and if possible return to England with the people whom disease had not yet destroyed. They abandoned the town, and with four vessels started on the homeward voyage on the seventh of June, **1610**.

**45. Lord Delaware.** — The colony was not destined to such a fate, however, and the sorrowful home voyage was not to last long. On the ninth of June, before the fleet had sailed out of the James River, it met three vessels from England, under command of the governor, Lord Delaware. These vessels were just in time, bringing a supply of provisions sufficient to last the colony a whole year. With great joy the crowd of famine-stricken, weary, and spiritless colonists returned to their abandoned village, and the colony of Virginia was saved from utter ruin and a fate like that of Roanoke Island. Fortunate also was the colony, at last, in its leader, and from this moment the permanency of the settlement was assured.

**Thomas West** succeeded his father as Lord Delaware in 1602, and in 1609 was appointed governor and captain-general of Virginia. "His coming revived the courage of the colonists, who had been reduced almost to despair, owing to privation and misgovernment, and his judicious and energetic management soon restored order and industry. Being ill, in March, 1611, he embarked for Nevis in the West Indies; but having been driven north by opposing winds, the party entered the mouth of a large river, called by the natives, Chickohocki, but which received the name of Delaware in his honor." (Appleton's Cyclopædia of American Biography.) Lord Delaware died at sea, in 1618, on a second voyage to America.

**46. The First Assembly.** — Lord Delaware did not remain governor long, and there was a succession of rulers until, in **1619**, George Yeardley arrived, for the second time governor-general of Virginia. He brought with him papers that established the first republic on this continent. He summoned a General Assembly, which was to be elected by the people, and every

freeman was entitled to vote for the burgesses. On July 30th, the "first legislative body that ever sat in America assembled at Jamestown," and two burgesses from each of the eleven boroughs were chosen to this popular assembly. Virginia was now no longer limited to the settlement at Jamestown, as ten other boroughs sent their representatives to this legislature. Two years afterwards a new charter from the king granted a full legal right to this body, and provided that no orders from England should "bind the said colony unless ratified in the General Assemblies." From 1619 to the present day the colony, and later the State, of Virginia has had a free government, at all times making its own laws.

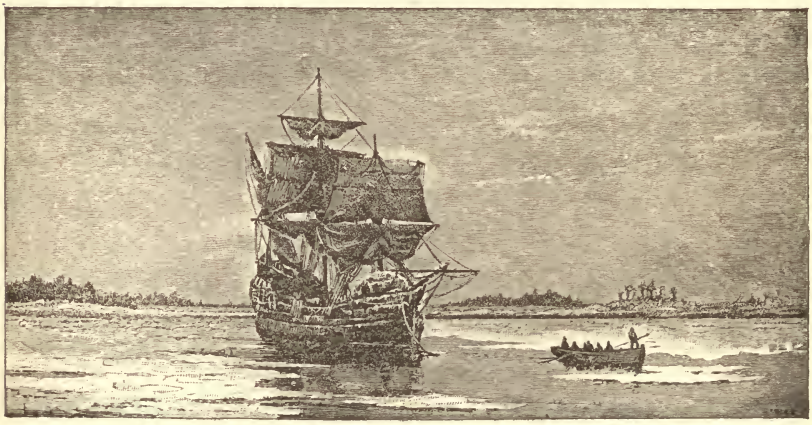
## CHAPTER VII.

### PLYMOUTH.

**47. The Reformation.** — The sixteenth century has a distinctive place in history as the age of the Reformation. The leading states of Europe, at the time of Columbus's discovery, were Christian nations acknowledging the Pope of Rome as the Head of the Church. One of the results of the Revival of Learning that followed the fall of Constantinople (1453) was the growth of individual thought. Men like Luther in Germany, and Calvin in France, began to disagree with the Roman Church in some of its doctrines and customs. Protesting against what seemed to them errors, they received the name of Protestants. In England the Protestant faith grew rapidly, so that in **1534** the nation withdrew its allegiance from Pope Clement VII.

**48. The Puritans.** — From the time of Henry VIII., the English people as a nation have continued to hold the Protestant faith, with the exception of the few years under Queen Mary. When Elizabeth was seated on the throne, the struggle between Catholics and Protestants was practically ended. The Church of England was established, and the larger part of the people accepted their ruler as the supreme authority in religious as well as civil

matters. But the influence of Calvin, the French Huguenots, and the Netherlanders was felt in England as well as upon the continent, and before Elizabeth's reign came to a close there was a large and growing number of Puritans, who desired, as they said, to purify the Church. At the beginning of the reign of James I., in 1603, the Puritans were a body of earnest men, determined to change the Church of England in many respects, and make it accord more closely with their views.



The "Mayflower."

**49. The Separatists.** — Laws were passed against the Puritans during the reign of Elizabeth, and punishments were inflicted upon those who refused either to attend church or to comply with its ordinances. The larger part of the Puritans, believing that they would eventually become sufficiently strong, desired to remain in the Church and "purify" it from within. These were called Non-Conformists, continuing to attend church, but not conforming to all the church rites. A small number of the Puritans withdrew from the Church entirely and met together to worship by themselves. These people planned to form a new church, which should be in accordance with their ideas, and therefore have received the name of Separatists or Independents. They were Puritans who carried their opposition to the Church of England to a

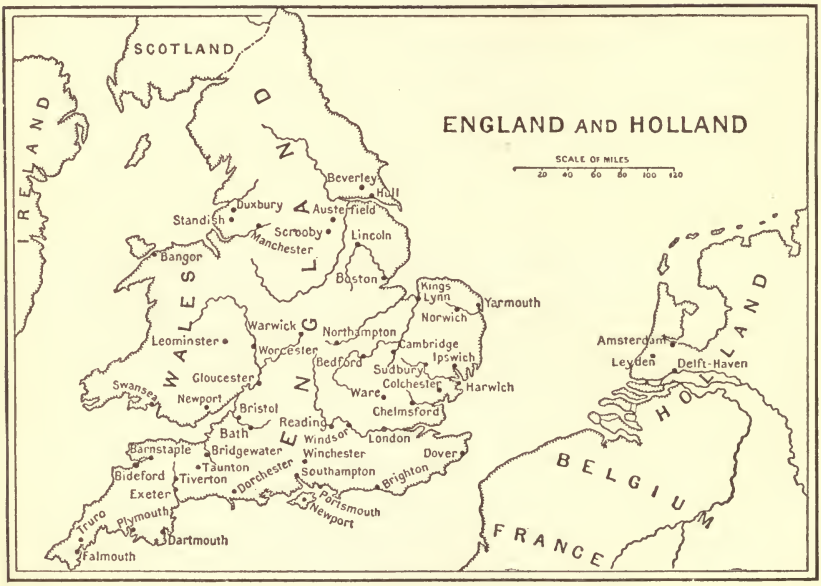
greater extent than did the Non-Conformists, and who therefore were persecuted more severely.

**50. The Pilgrims.** — One band of the Separatists lived in and near Scrooby, a village in Nottinghamshire on the main road between London and York. Persecuted for religion's sake, they determined to become exiles rather than abandon their faith. They made an attempt to flee to Holland in **1607**, and, though they were prevented that year, they succeeded in reaching Amsterdam, after much suffering, in 1608. Journeying to Leyden the next year, the Pilgrims, as they were now called, remained there for eleven years. They had an opportunity to become acquainted with the church, the free schools, the mode of thought, and the form of free government of the Dutch. Their numbers continually grew, until in 1620 there were several hundred attendants at the Leyden Church, having John Robinson as their pastor.

**Bradford's History.** — "When, by the travail and diligence of some godly and zealous preachers, and God's blessing on their labors, as in other places of the land, so in the north parts, many became enlightened by the word of God, and had their ignorance and sins discovered by the word of God's grace, and began, by his grace, to reform their lives and make conscience of their ways, the work of God was no sooner manifest in them, but presently they were both scoffed and scorned by the profane multitude, and the ministers urged with the yoke of subscription, or else must be silenced; and the poor people were so vexed with apparators and pursuivants and the Commission Courts, as truly their affliction was not small. . . . So many, therefore, of these professors as saw the evil of these things in these parts, and whose hearts the Lord had touched with heavenly zeal for his truth, they shook off this yoke of antichristian bondage, and, as the Lord's free people joined themselves, (by a covenant of the Lord,) into a church estate, in the fellowship of the gospel, to walk in all his ways, made known, or to be made known unto them, according to their best endeavors, whatever it would cost them. And that it cost them much pains, trouble, sorrow, affliction, and persecution, and expense of their estates, etc., this ensuing history will declare."

**51. The Exile.** — The Pilgrims were lovers of home, though they had been compelled to flee to foreign shores. They were of the middle class of Englishmen, hardy farmers, and skilled mechanics. They were anxious that their children should be English and not Dutch, and that they should always love and be loyal to old England. It thus happened that, after a few years, a strong desire sprang up among the Pilgrims to establish a colony in the English possessions in America. Other reasons were given for the intended emigration, among them being the wish to Christianize the Indians. Attempts were accordingly made to obtain the needed means, and at length arrangements were entered into with the London Company (¶ 35). This company was to provide the necessary supplies

and vessels, and was to receive from the Pilgrims a large proportion of the profits.




**52. The "Mayflower."** — When the time for departure came, it was found that vessels had been provided for much less than half of the Leyden colony. Pastor Robinson remained with the majority, and Elder Brewster accompanied the Pilgrims, to act as pastor until those left in Leyden should follow the first voyagers. On the morning of July 22d, 1620, the "Speedwell" left Delft-haven, the port of Leyden, with a small number of these exiles, parting from friends and home for an unknown land. At Southampton, England, they were joined by the "Mayflower," and after two attempts at starting, the "Speedwell" was declared unseaworthy, and they put back into the port of Plymouth. September 6th, 1620, one hundred and one persons, men, women, and children, sailed from Plymouth, a

**The Bradford Manuscript.** — Governor Bradford wrote a history of the settlement at Plymouth, which has remained in manuscript, in his handwriting, to this day. About the time of the Revolution this manuscript disappeared. Nearly seventy-five years afterward it was discovered in the library of the Bishop of London By a decree of the Consistorial and Episcopal Court in London, the manuscript has been presented to the State of Massachusetts, through Hon. Thomas F. Bayard, our late Ambassador to the Court of Saint James. It was received by the Governor on May 26th, 1897, in presence of the Massachusetts Senate and House of Representatives. The document will be kept in the State Library.

band destined to establish the second permanent English colony on the coast of America.

**53. The Voyage.** — The "Mayflower," a vessel of 180 tons, was very small for such a voyage; the autumn of the year was not suitable for a trip across the Atlantic; the sailors were unacquainted with the route; at the present time such a journey would be deemed foolhardy. The voyage was stormy, and sixty-three days passed before America was reached. The intention had been to reach some point on the coast of New Jersey, near the mouth of the Hudson, but the captain of the "Mayflower," for some reason, brought the vessel into the harbor of Provincetown, at the extreme end of Cape Cod. After a month of exploration, a party sent out from the vessel landed at Plymouth, December 11th. This is the date according to the old style of reckoning, and **December 21st, 1620,** N. S. (New Style), is the day celebrated as Forefathers' Day.

**Delft-Haven.** — The company of Pilgrims that set sail from Delft-haven, on July 22d, 1620, left a large company of their friends who would willingly have gone with them. Bradford himself tells the story of the parting: "That night was spent with little sleepe by ye most, but with friendly entertainmente & christian discourse and other reall expressions of true christian love. The next day, the wind being faire, they wente aborde, and their friends with them, where truly dolfull was ye sight of that sade and mournfull parting; to see what sighs and sobbs and praires did sound amongst them, what tears did gush from every eye, & pithy speeches peirst each harte; that sundry of ye Dutch strangers yt stood on ye key as spectators, could not refraine from tears. . . . their Revēd. pastor falling downe on his knees, . . . with watrie cheeks commended them with most fervente praiers to the Lord and his blessing. And then with mutuall imbrases and manly tears, they tooke their leaves one of another; which proved to be ye last leave to many of them."

**54. The Compact.** — While the Pilgrims were still in Provincetown Harbor, a meeting was held, November 11th, in the cabin of the "Mayflower." They had arrived at land which was not under the control of the London Company, and some were thought "not well affected to unity and concord." A compact was drawn up, and solemnly agreed to by all the men, forty-one in number, which was to be the fundamental law of the government. (Appendix A.) "Due submission and obedience" were promised, and John Carver was chosen governor. Bancroft calls this occasion the "birth of popular constitutional liberty."

**55. The First Winter.** — Though Plymouth is much farther south than either Scrooby or Leyden, yet the newly arrived immigrants found the winter there much more severe. To the Pilgrims, suffering from the extreme cold, and lacking sufficient nourishing food,

the first season proved a terrible ordeal. Just as the first summer proved a fatal one to the settlers at Jamestown, so during these winter months one half of the Plymouth colony perished. Among those who died was John Carver, the governor, and his responsible position then came to William Bradford, who held the office most of the time until his death, thirty-seven years afterwards.

William Brewster, the elder, was another man of great importance in the infant colony, and to him much of the success of Plymouth was due. The colonists were much disturbed by fears of the Indians, but no attack was made upon the settlement during its earlier years. This was partly due to the fact that a pestilence had recently caused the death of very many of the neighboring Indians, but perhaps even more to the dread that they had of Myles Standish, who had command of the military forces. With such men as Bradford, Brewster, Standish, and Dr. Fuller, it was almost certain that the colony would succeed.

**The Julian calendar** was used throughout Europe for many centuries. This was based on the supposition that the year was 365¼ days long, and therefore it made every year 365 days except the fourth or "leap year" which contained 366 days. During the sixteenth century time was found to have been incorrectly kept, and the reckoning to be ten days behind the correct time. The Gregorian calendar, named in honor of Pope Gregory XIII., who ordered the reform, was adopted. Ten was added to the commonly accepted day of the month, and it was agreed that in the future the years that are divisible by 100 should not be leap years unless they are divisible by 400. Thus Dec. 11th, 1620, Old Style, becomes Dec. 21st, 1620, New Style, by adding the necessary ten days. The year 1600 was divisible by 400, and therefore that year was a leap year by the new calendar. The year 1500 was not divisible by 400, that year should not have been of 366 days, and therefore during the century before it the error was only nine days. Oct. 12th, 1492, O. S., is Oct. 21st, 1492, N. S. Feb. 11th, 1732, O. S., becomes Feb. 22d, 1732, N. S., inasmuch as the error was increased one day by the year 1700, and eleven days should be added.

## CHAPTER VIII.

### MASSACHUSETTS BAY.

**56. The Later Puritans.** — The body of Puritan Non-Conformists in England grew rapidly during the years that the Pilgrims spent in Holland. The struggle that they had begun with the king and the Church of England increased as the years went by. It was natural that the Puritans, opposed as they were to the religious

supremacy of the king, should object to the civil despotism which King James was exercising. When Charles I. succeeded his father in 1625 the contest had become a civil one to a great extent, and in a few years it resulted in a civil war. Then the Puritans had a double reason for forming a colony in America, — to provide a home where they might worship as they pleased, and also to obtain a place of refuge in case the king should be victorious in the struggle.

Governor Winthrop.
(From a painting in the State House at Boston, attributed to Vandyke.)

**57. The Fishing Station.** — In **1623**, an attempt was made to establish a fishing colony at Cape Ann, the site of the present city of Gloucester. After a struggle between Plymouth fishermen and others from Dorchester, England, a little settlement was started, over which Roger Conant was made governor in 1625. The Rev. John White, of Dorchester, a Non-Conforming Puritan, was deeply interested in this colony, and hoped that something besides mere money gain might come from it. This experiment proved a failure, as the land was found unsuitable for cultivation, but Conant was unwilling to abandon the attempt to form a colony, and, in **1626**, with at least fourteen companions, he removed to Naumkeag and made a settlement there. Mr. White wrote him encouragingly, and promised to send supplies and reinforcements, if he would hold the place. This Conant agreed to do, and the little colony waited patiently two years for the promised aid.

**Endicott's Charter** begins as follows: "CHARLES BY THE GRACE OF GOD King of England Scotland ffrannce and Ireland Defender of the faith &c.; To all to whome these present shall come Greetinge; WHEREASS our most deare and royall ffather kinge James of blessed memory . . . hath given and graunted unto the Councill established at Plymouth in the County of Devon for the plantinge . . . of newe England in America, . . . all that parte of America lyeinge and beinge in breadth from forty degrees of northerly latitude . . . to forty-eight degrees of the said northerly latitude . . . *and Whereass* the said Councill . . . haue by theire deeds . . . graunted . . . to (several men, including John Endicott) . . . all that parte of newe England . . . which lies . . . betweene a greate river their comonly called . . . merriemack and a certaine other river there, called Charles River, being in the bottom of a certen bay there comonly called Massachusetts, . . . *Now Knowe* ye that we . . . doe graunte and confirme, unto the said (gentlemen) . . . all the said parte of newe England in America.

**58. The Salem Immigration.** — In 1628, White fulfilled his promise, and a new company was formed, which purchased land from the Council of Plymouth (¶ 36). This grant extended from three miles south of the Charles River to three miles north of the Merrimac. September 13th, 1628, Gov. John Endicott, accompanied by about one hundred people, landed at Naumkeag, which, the next year, received the name of Salem. Cordially welcomed by Conant and his followers, Endicott soon had his settlement under way, and the Massachusetts Bay colony was fairly begun.

First Church at Salem. Built 1634.

**59. The Massachusetts Bay Company.** — The Dorchester Company prospered during the year 1628, and early in the next year a royal charter was obtained from King Charles. "The Governor and Company of the Massachusetts Bay in New England" was established, and jurisdiction was granted to this trading company over the land previously purchased from the Council of Plymouth. In the spring of 1629, a fleet sailed from England carrying two hundred settlers for the little colony at Naumkeag, among them being Rev. John Higginson and Rev. John Skelton, the first ministers of the Salem Church. This company landed during the latter portion of June, and more than doubled the number of the settlement at Salem as well as of a smaller one at Charlestown.

**Salem First Church.** — When, in July, 1629, the little settlement at Salem organized the first Protestant church in America by electing their pastor and teacher, the meeting was probably held in the open air. Where meetings were held during the next few years is not known, but in 1634 it was decided to build a meeting-house. This proved to be a building 25 by 20 feet, with a gallery at one end. In this church it is supposed that Roger Williams and Hugh Peters preached. The building was not finished for some years, and for a while oiled paper was used in place of glass in the windows. Four other buildings have been used by this church society since the time of this small and unpretending edifice, but the old church still stands, a monument to the heroism of those Puritans who were willing to exchange the cathedrals of England for such structures as this.

**60. Settlement of Boston.** — In the autumn of 1629, the Massachusetts Bay Company took an unheard of step in deciding to move their headquarters from England to the colony. They voted that the com-

pany should be bodily transferred to New England, and that they should bring the charter with them. During the summer of **1630**, seventeen vessels sailed from different ports of England, most of them coming to Salem or Charlestown. From ten to fifteen hundred persons arrived during this year, and among them was the new governor, John Winthrop. Some of the party settled in Salem, some in Charlestown, and others in various places in the vicinity. The peninsula of Shawmut, as the Indians had named it, presented a very suitable place for a settlement, and Winthrop chose it for his headquarters. In September this village was given the name of Boston, in memory of the town in England from which some of the settlers had come. Boston was made the capital of the colony, and has always continued to be the leading town.

**Governor Winthrop** was born in 1588. When the Massachusetts Bay Colony decided to remove the colony and to carry the charter and all things necessary for the government to America, Governor Craddock resigned and the Company chose John Winthrop in his place. He arrived in 1630, and after a short stay in Salem and Charlestown he chose Trimount for his home, and, calling it Boston, he made it the seat of government. With the exception of one or two short intervals, Winthrop remained governor of Massachusetts Bay until his death in 1649. He exercised a marked influence upon the colony, and his death was greatly lamented. His son, also named John, was one of the settlers of New Haven, and afterwards its governor.

**61. The First Years.** — At last the Puritans had a home, where they might worship as they pleased, and where they could rule as seemed to them best. At first all the freemen were in the habit of meeting and making their own laws. Soon the numbers became too many and the settlements too scattered for a common meeting, so that representatives were elected to the General Court, who should carry out the will of the voters. Only members of the Puritan Church were admitted as freemen and allowed the right to vote. The method of voting was by ballot, the first use of which was in Salem, in August, 1629, when the church met to elect their ministers. The population grew rapidly, many coming from England each year, until in 1649 there were perhaps twenty thousand people in the colony.

**Church and State.** — The first town meeting held in New England, that might properly be called by that name, was the meeting at Salem when the people chose the pastor of the church. At the present day, when church matters and governmental affairs are kept entirely distinct, it seems very strange to think of the church electing town-officers. One of the earliest records of the church of Salem contains a notice of the election of a neat-herd, or an officer to take care of the cattle of the town. Church and town remained identical for some time, until the General Court passed laws establishing the towns and defining their powers and duties.

# CHAPTER IX.

## NEW HAMPSHIRE, CONNECTICUT, RHODE ISLAND.

### NEW HAMPSHIRE.

**62. Mason and Gorges.** — A few years after the arrival of the Pilgrims at Plymouth, and while the fishing colony was making a settlement at Cape Ann, two other colonies were begun. The Council of Plymouth was unsuccessful in its attempts at colonization (¶ 36), and soon began to divide its possessions among the members of the company. Sir Ferdinando Gorges and John Mason obtained a grant from the Council conveying to them the land between the Merrimac and the Kennebec rivers. In **1623**, two fishing hamlets were started at Dover and Portsmouth, — the first important settlements in New Hampshire.

Sir Ferdinando Gorges should be remembered as one of the most earnest and most persistent colonizers of America. He was especially influential in the formation of the Virginia Company in 1606. The next year he sent the ill-fated "Popham Colony" to the coast of Maine. Captain John Smith was in his service when, in his attempt in 1615 to form a colony, he fell into the hands of French pirates. The Council of Plymouth, established in 1620, found in Gorges their most enthusiastic member. After the separation between Mason and Gorges, in 1635, the latter retained a strong interest in his colony of New Somersetshire. The leading settlement was at Saco, where the first court was organized in 1636. Massachusetts Bay, under her charter, however, laid claim to New Somersetshire, and in 1656 the heirs of Gorges were defeated, and Maine was placed under the control of Massachusetts.

**63. New Hampshire and Maine.** — The partnership lasted but a few years, when Mason and Gorges separated and divided their lands between themselves. Mason obtained a grant of the land between the Merrimac and the Piscataqua, and named his colony New Hampshire, from his home in England. After his death the few towns came under the protection of Massachusetts Bay, and for a time remained a part of that colony. Later New Hampshire had a separate government for a few years, and finally in 1691 was made a royal colony (¶ 191), remaining so until the Revolution. Gorges obtained the rest of the original grant, and at first called it New Somersetshire. Afterwards it was called Maine, and passing soon under the control of Massachusetts, it so remained until 1820 (¶ 447).

## CONNECTICUT.

**64. Connecticut.** — The colony of Massachusetts Bay grew rapidly during the first few years after the settlement of Boston. Within five years there were thirty towns on or near the coast that sent their representatives to the General Court to make laws. Some of the immigrants began to object to the law which refused the right to vote to those who were not members of the Puritan Church. Desiring to form communities where all should have the franchise, some of the towns decided to move to new localities. The fertile valley of the Connecticut River presented strong attractions, and during the years **1635** and **1636** settlements were made along this river. The towns of Dorchester, Watertown, and Newtown (now Cambridge) moved in a body, and formed the villages afterwards called Windsor, Wethersfield, and Hartford. These were the first English settlements of importance within the present limits of Connecticut, and the colony obtained its name from that of the river, upon whose banks these towns were built.

**The Connecticut Constitution.** — John Fiske, in "The Beginnings of New England," tells the story of the adoption of the Connecticut Constitution. "On the 14th of January, 1639, all the freemen of the three towns assembled at Hartford and adopted a written constitution, in which the hand of the great preacher (Hooker) is clearly discernible. It is worthy of note that this document contains none of the conventional references to a 'dread sovereign' or a 'gracious king,' nor the slightest allusion to the British or any government outside of Connecticut itself, nor does it prescribe any condition of church-membership for the right of suffrage. It was the first written constitution known to history, that created a government, and it marked the beginnings of American democracy, of which Thomas Hooker deserves more than any other man to be called the father. The government of the United States to-day is in lineal descent more nearly related to that of Connecticut than to that of any of the other thirteen States."

**65. New Haven.** — While the newly arrived immigrants from Massachusetts were becoming settled in the valley of the Connecticut, the beginnings of another colony were made. A party of settlers arriving in Boston in 1637 decided to seek a place where they might form a colony of their own, and not simply a town in Massachusetts. Under the leadership of Rev. John Davenport they left Boston, and sailed around Cape Cod, past the entrance to Narragansett Bay, and landed at the mouth of the Quinnipiack River in **1638**. This Indian name was changed to New Haven, and a rival colony to Connecticut was begun. The growth, however, was slow, and many, intending to settle here, were led to join the

towns on the Connecticut, because of their greater religious liberty. The two colonies grew side by side, until the Connecticut charter was received in **1662** (¶ 185), which was followed in 1664 by the union of the two, under the name of the larger. The colony, and later the State, of Connecticut, gave proof of its double origin by having two capitals, Hartford and New Haven, until the year 1873.

## RHODE ISLAND.

**66. Providence.** — Religious persecution drove the Pilgrims to Plymouth, and also the Puritans to Salem and Boston. Religious liberty was not understood by the Englishmen of the seventeenth century; those who had fled from religious oppression quickly became themselves persecutors for religion's sake. One of the ministers of the town of Salem, unable to accept all of the beliefs and practices with which he was surrounded, began to preach and write against them. This man was Roger Williams, who had arrived in Boston in 1631. The General Court determined to investigate his new doctrines, and as a result Roger Williams was banished from the country (¶ 181). Unwilling to be carried back to England, he fled alone into the wilderness. This was in midwinter, and he sojourned among the Indians, being "tossed," as he said, "for fourteen weeks, not knowing what bed or bread did mean." At length, having been joined by a few companions, he crossed the Seekonk River, and in **1636** decided to build a town, to which he gave the name of Providence. Here, at the northern end of Narragansett Bay, was established a colony which allowed perfect religious liberty.

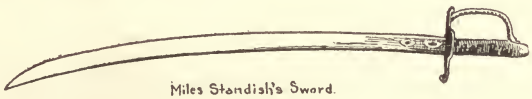
**Roger Williams**, in a letter written about 1671, speaks thus of his winter's flight: "When I was unkindly, and unchristianly, as I believe, driven from my house, and land, and wife, and children, in the midst of a New England winter, now about thirty-five years past, at Salem, that ever honored governor, Mr. Winthrop, privately wrote to me to steer my course to the Narragansett Bay and Indians, for many high and heavenly ends, encourageing me, from the freeness of the place from any English claims and patents. I took his prudent motion as a hint and a voice from God, and, waiving all other thoughts and motions, I steered my course from Salem — though in winter snow, which I yet feel — unto these parts, wherein I may say *Peniel*, that is, I have seen the face of God."

**67. Rhode Island.** — Another leader of a religious sect, Mrs. Anne Hutchinson, was banished from the colony of Massachusetts Bay in the year **1638**. A home was made by her followers on an island in Narragansett Bay, at a place called Aquidneck. The

towns of Newport and Portsmouth sprang up on this island of Rhode Island, and the colony of Rhode Island was thus begun. This continued on friendly terms with its neighbor at Providence, until a charter was obtained in 1644, which incorporated the colony of "Rhode Island and Providence Plantations." Under another charter, received in **1663**, the government was carried on until near the middle of the present century. To-day Rhode Island is the only State having two capitals, and holds sessions of its legislature each year at Providence and Newport.

Roger Williams's Monument, Providence, R. I.

**68. New England.**—Thus, in the year 1638, there had been established in New England seven distinct colonies. New Hampshire, which remained a separate colony for most of its history; Massachusetts Bay and Plymouth, which were united in 1691; Connecticut and New Haven, which continued apart until 1665; and Rhode Island and Providence, which were joined in 1644. After the year 1691, New England contained four colonies, with the boundaries nearly as at present, except that Maine continued a part of Massachusetts until it became a State in 1820 (¶ 447) and that Vermont was claimed by New Hampshire and New York until it was admitted to the Union in 1791 (¶ 402).



Miles Standish's Sword.

NEW SOMERSETSHIRE (MAINE)
Casco Bay
Saco R.
Saco
Salmon Falls R.
Dover
Piscataqua R.
Portsmouth
NEW HAMPSHIRE
Merrimack R.
Connecticut River
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Haverhill
MERRIMACK R.
Ipswich
Cape Ann
Gloucester
Salem Village (Danvers)
Salem (Naumkeag)
MASSACHUSETTS
Deerfield
CONNECTICUT R.
Charlestown
Chelsea
Saugus (Lynn)
Newtown (Cambridge)
MASSACHUSETTS BAY
Watertown
Boston (Shawmut)
Roxbury
Dorchester
Charles R.
Northampton
Springfield
Duxbury
Cape Cod
Province town
PLYMOUTH
Plymouth
CAPE COD BAY
Rehoboth
Pawtucket
Taunton
Carver
Windsor
Hartford
Providence
Swansea
Wethersfield
Warwick
Mt. Hope
CONNECTICUT
RHODE ISLAND
Portsmouth
TARRAGANSETT BAY
AQUIDNEC
CONNECTICUT R.
Thames R.
Newport
CUTTY HUNK
ELIZABETH IS.
New Haven
New London
Groton
Saybrook
East Haven
LONG IS. SOUND
BLOCK ISLAND
NEW ENGLAND

# CHAPTER X.

## NEW YORK.

**69. The Dutch.** — On the west coast of the continent of Europe, directly across the British Channel from England, lies the country of Holland. This is the kingdom which was the famous Dutch Republic of the seventeenth century. During the sixteenth century, the Protestant faith took strong hold of the prosperous and educated people of the Netherlands, and a long and terrible war with the king of Spain followed. For eighty years they fought the most powerful king in the world, and yet were able, at the same time, to advance in prosperity, and to become the greatest commercial nation of the time. While the English were making their first permanent settlements in America, the Dutch Republic was driving the Spanish and the Portuguese from the ocean, and building up a trade with India and the East.

**70. Henry Hudson.** — The Dutch were not content with the long journey around the south of Africa, and determined to send an expedition to seek for a more direct route. Accordingly, in 1609, the Dutch East India Company directed Henry Hudson to make an expedition toward the north, and to find a way to China. Hudson was an Englishman, though in the employ of the Dutch, and had made two similar attempts before this time. He first tried to find a passage north of Europe, and then set sail for the west; after traversing the coast from Newfoundland to the Delaware, he passed through the Narrows between Staten Island and Long Island. Pleased with the beauty of the bay, as well as with its excellence as a harbor, Hudson sailed up the river, past the Palisades, almost to the mouth of the Mohawk River. He decided that he had not found the northwest passage through America, and returned to Holland to report the result of his voyages. The magnificent river received his name, as well as the great bay in British America, to which he afterward went, and where he lost his life.

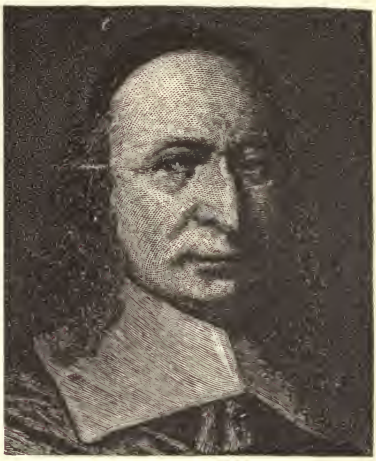
**71. The Traders.** — The commercial character of the Dutch led them at once to see an opportunity to establish trade with this portion of the New World which they now claimed as their territory through Hudson's discoveries. They could sell to the Indians many of the products of their excellent manufactories, and could also obtain from them an endless supply of the furs with which the interior of the country abounded. In 1610, another vessel entered the Hudson River which made purchases of furs from the Indians. The next year other vessels were sent from

Hudson Sailing up the River.

Holland, and about **1614** a few huts were built on the Island of Manhattan, and a "strong house," called Fort Nassau, was erected near the present site of Albany. A brisk trade sprang up, so that in 1621 the States-General of Holland chartered the Dutch West India Company, and gave it complete control over all the land claimed by the Dutch on this continent.

**72. New Netherland.** — In March, **1623**, the first settlers were sent out by the West India Company, under the command of Captain May. This party made the first real colony within the Dutch

territory, then called New Netherland. Small settlements were made at the mouth of the Hudson, or North River, on the Delaware, or South River, and on the Connecticut, while most of the immigrants went to Albany. Thus, three years later than the Pilgrims, and seven years before the founding of Boston, the Dutch colony took its position between Canada and Virginia. Purchasing land of the Indians, the people were soon on good terms with them, and New Netherland at once became a prosperous colony.



Peter Stuyvesant.
(From a painting in the possession of the N. Y. Historical Society.)

**73. The Dutch Colony.** — Peter Minuit, the first governor, or director-general, took possession in 1626, and, with a council of five, exercised supreme authority. He purchased the Island of Manhattan from the Indians for twenty-four dollars, and built Fort Amsterdam to be the seat of government. Minuit was succeeded by Walter Van Twiller in 1633, and during his rule the valley of the Connecticut was lost to the Dutch (¶ 64). The most noted governor of New Netherland was Peter Stuyvesant, who was director-general from 1647 to 1664. Stuyvesant ruled the colony with a rod of iron, and was in continual conflict with the people. He settled the long-standing dispute with Connecticut over the boundary between the two colonies, and annexed Delaware by conquering the Swedes (¶ 81). Under his government the colony took a high rank in educational matters, and a popular government was established in 1664.

**Peter Stuyvesant,** the last and greatest of the governors of New Netherland, was born in Holland in 1602, and died in New York at the age of eighty. In May, 1647, he arrived in New Amsterdam, and was received with great rejoicing. He "was above medium height, with a fine physique. He dressed with care, and usually wore slashed hose fastened at the knee by a knotted scarf, a velvet jacket with slashed sleeves over a full puffed shirt, and rosettes upon his shoes. Although abrupt in manner, unconventional, cold, and haughty, full of prejudice and passion, and sometimes unapproachable, he possessed large sympathies and tender affection. His clear judgment, quick perception, and extent of reading were remarkable." (Appleton's Cyclopedia of American Biography.)

**74. New York.** — The position of New Netherland, with English colonies on both sides, was calculated to cause trouble with England. Soon after the Restoration in 1660, Charles II. granted to his brother, the Duke of York, afterwards James II., all the land between the Connecticut and the Delaware rivers. In 1664 a fleet appeared at New Amsterdam, and Stuyvesant, unable to defend his possessions, surrendered to the English deputy-governor. A few years later the Dutch recaptured the colony, but were unable to hold it, and Dutch New Netherland became permanently English New York. In 1685 James succeeded his brother as king of England, and New York became a royal colony.

## CHAPTER XI.

### MARYLAND.

**75. Avalon.** — Sir George Calvert was one of the many English gentlemen who took a deep interest in schemes of colonization. On account of the favorable reports which he received of Newfoundland, Calvert obtained a charter, granting him a portion of that island. In 1623, the year of the settlements of New Hampshire, Cape Ann, and New Amsterdam, a colony was established at Newfoundland, which received the name of Avalon. In 1628 Calvert himself, with most of his family, took up his residence in the colony. The little settlement found the climate extremely severe, and was in constant trouble with the French fishermen. It was without the necessary conditions for a successful colony, and was abandoned. Its charter, however, served as a model for the later patent of Maryland.

"**George Calvert,** Lord Baltimore, one of the principal secretaries of state under James I., was born at Kipling, in Yorkshire, in 1582. He was educated at Oxford, and entered the public service as secretary to Robert Cecil. In 1617 he was knighted, and in 1619 he was made one of the principal secretaries of state. In 1625 he was made Baron Baltimore, and among other rewards he received for his services was a patent as Lord of the province of Avalon, in Newfoundland. As this colony was much exposed to the attacks of the French, he left it and obtained another patent for Maryland. He died in 1632, before the grant was confirmed, but in that year it was made out in the name of his son Cecil." (Encyclopedia Britannica. Vol. IV.)

**76. Lord Baltimore.** — Calvert, in 1623, became a Roman Catholic, and soon after was made Baron Baltimore by James I. After he found his Newfoundland colony impracticable, he petitioned Charles I. for another tract of land in a warmer climate, somewhere near the latitude of Jamestown. Meeting with opposition from the settlers of Virginia, Baltimore applied for and received a grant of land north of the Potomac River. In honor of Queen Henrietta Maria, Baltimore named his colony Maryland. When the first Lord Baltimore died, his son, Cecil Calvert, inherited his father's title, and became proprietor of Maryland.

Lord Baltimore.

(After an engraving by A. Blotling (1657), now in the possession of the Maryland Historical Society, at Baltimore, Md.)

**77. Settlements.** — The first settlement was made March 27th, 1634, near the mouth of the Potomac, and was called St. Mary's. The occupations of the settlers and the nature of the country did not favor the making of large towns. The people were principally engaged in farming, especially in raising tobacco, which was shipped direct from the farmers. Each planter had land lying upon the coast of the bay or the shores of the rivers, and could provide a wharf from his own land in water deep enough for the shallow vessels of those days. This was true, also, of the other southern colonies. Near the close of the seventeenth century another important town was founded, and the capital was moved from St. Mary's to Annapolis. The town of Baltimore, now the largest city in the State of Maryland, was not founded until 1729.

**78. The Settlers.** — In the first two vessels to bring colonists to Maryland, there were "about twenty gentlemen and between two and three hundred laboring men and handycraftsmen." These settlers were not adventurers, like the early colonists in the South, nor were they religious refugees, like the "Mayflower" voyagers. The colony was established on purely business principles, and men were chosen for settlers of such character and occupation as would

be needed in such a settlement. Many of them were Roman Catholics, and at first the government granted religious toleration. Soon after the English revolution of 1688, when William and Mary came to the throne, the Church of England was made the established church of the colony, and the Roman Catholics became the victims of religious persecution (¶ 183). Maryland remained under the government of her proprietor until, with her sister colonies, she threw off all allegiance to the mother country.

## CHAPTER XII.

### DELAWARE AND NEW JERSEY.

#### DELAWARE.

**79. Dutch Settlements.** — When the first Dutch colony arrived, under Cornelius May (¶ 72), in 1623, a small number formed a settlement upon what was then called South River. These Dutchmen ascended the river, since called the Delaware, to a point near the present Philadelphia, and there built Fort Nassau. For about eight years this little colony struggled for existence, until, in 1631, the Indians massacred the settlers and the river was deserted. The Dutch continued to claim the region, and always protested against the coming of colonists of any other nationality.

**Gustavus Adolphus** was king of Sweden for twenty-one years, from 1611 to 1632. He was born in 1594, the son of Charles IX. His youth was spent in study, not only of the various languages and sciences of the day, but also of statesmanship, as he attended council meetings by the time he was ten years of age. When he came to the throne he was not only unusually gifted in literary attainments, but was a man of strong character and extraordinary courage. His entire reign was spent in wars, most of them religious, and from this he has received the title of the "Hero of Protestantism." "Gustavus Adolphus is justly regarded as one of the noblest and greatest figures in history."

**80. The Swedes.** — To the north of Holland lies a country inhabited by people of a race closely related to the Dutch. The great king, Gustavus Adolphus, saw the advantages which his nation might receive from a Swedish colony, and therefore, in 1626, chartered the Swedish South Company, as it was commonly called. No discoveries had been made by this nation, but the company relied upon the claim which they

would obtain by the purchase of land from the Indians. The Thirty Years' War interfered with the schemes of colonization, and the king died in 1632. The plan was not abandoned, however, and in **1637** a colony was sent out from Sweden to the new continent.

**81. New Sweden.** — The first Swedish colony was under the command of Peter Minuit, formerly governor of New Netherland, and the first settlement was on the Delaware. Fort Christina was built near the site of the present Wilmington, the land being purchased from the Indians. This was within the territory claimed by the Dutch, but they were afraid to enter into disputes with the brave Swedes of those days. The growth of New Sweden was very slow, and at the end of seventeen years, in 1655, there were perhaps seven hundred people in the colony. During that year the Dutch, deeming themselves of sufficient strength, attacked Fort Christina, and with no shedding of blood New Sweden again became a part of the Dutch possessions.

**82. Delaware.** — The Dutch retained possession of the lands upon the Delaware less than ten years. When the Duke of York, in 1664, wrested New Netherland from the Dutch, Delaware became an English colony. New Jersey was soon granted to other proprietors, but Delaware continued to be a part of New York and directly under the control of the duke. Soon after William Penn had secured a grant of the land which he called Pennsylvania, he found that his colony needed access to the ocean, and he obtained from the Duke of York a deed of the three lower counties on the Delaware (¶ 95). The small strip of land which had first been under the Dutch, then under the Swedes, then under the Dutch again, afterwards conquered by the Duke of York, had at last obtained, in 1682, a permanent owner, and become a part of the possessions of the Quaker proprietor. Delaware had the same governor as Pennsylvania, but a different legislature, until, by the American Revolution, it became an independent State.

## NEW JERSEY.

**83. New Jersey.** — The early history of the colony of New Jersey is almost the same as that of its neighbors, New York and Delaware. The Dutch claimed its territory as a part of New Netherland,

but made few if any permanent settlements within its limits. The Swedes did not confine themselves within the present boundaries of Delaware, a few of them having farms across the Delaware River. When the Dutch seized upon New Sweden, they claimed continuous land from the Hudson to and beyond the Delaware, but did not have any settlements of note between New Amsterdam and Christina. When the Dutch surrendered to the Duke of York, the land became a part of his territory, and immediately its history as a separate colony began.

**84. Berkeley and Carteret.** — One of the first acts of the Duke of York, after acquiring his new territory, was to give a certain portion to two of his friends. In **1664** Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret received from the duke a grant of the land between the Hudson and the Delaware. To this territory was given the name of New Jersey, in honor of Carteret, who had been governor of the Isle of Jersey. Berkeley sold his portion to two Quakers in 1674, and New Jersey was divided into East Jersey, belonging to Carteret, and West Jersey, a Quaker colony. Later Carteret's heirs sold East Jersey to William Penn, and in 1702 the two colonies were united, and henceforth New Jersey was a royal colony.

**The Isle of Jersey** is one of the islands in the British Channel, and contains about forty-five square miles. Sir George Carteret was governor of this island at the breaking out of the Civil War in England in 1642, and the island under his leadership remained loyal to King Charles. The Channel Islands suffered great loss because of their devotion to the king, and only yielded to Parliament when, in 1651, it was evident that a further contest was useless. When the Duke of York, James II., gave a part ownership of New Jersey to Carteret, it was a partial recompense for the devotion which Carteret had shown to his father, King Charles.

**85. Settlements.** — The early settlers of New Jersey were of three different classes. Some of them were New England Puritans, others came across the border from New York, while others were Quakers who came direct from England. A few months after the surrender of New Netherland, a few persons from Long Island began, in 1665, to make a settlement at Elizabethtown. Here the new governor of Jersey found them and confirmed their right to the land. Religious toleration was permitted, and settlers began to arrive in numbers from the New England colonies. By 1688 settlements had been made in such numbers that a colonial legislature was assembled. The class of people that flocked to New

Jersey was of the best, and the history of the people is one of quiet growth. The Indians were rarely troublesome, and the adjoining colonies of New York and Pennsylvania protected New Jersey from the French.

## CHAPTER XIII.

### THE CAROLINAS AND GEORGIA.

#### THE CAROLINAS.

**86. Early History.** — There were many unsuccessful attempts to colonize the land lying to the south of Virginia before the first permanent settlement was made. The most important of these were the Port Royal Colony of the French Huguenots (¶ 19), and the two disastrous colonies of Raleigh at Roanoke Island (¶ 28). During the century which followed the massacre of the Huguenots, many English settlers sought homes in this tract of land, which was called Carolana, or Carolina. The colony sent out by the London Company was intended for Roanoke Island (¶ 37), but instead sailed up the James River. Charles I. gave to one of his favorites a grant of Carolana, but no permanent settlements were made.

**87. Early Settlers.** — It was not until the middle of the seventeenth century that emigration began to set towards Carolina. In 1653, a party of Virginians made a settlement on the Albemarle River. These settlers had been harassed while in Virginia because they were not in sympathy with the Church of England, the established church of the colony (¶ 179). The Albemarle settlement was close to the original boundary of Virginia, but within the present limits of North Carolina. Some New Englanders attempted a settlement at the mouth of the Cape Fear River, but soon abandoned it because they deemed the place unsuitable. A party of Englishmen from Barbadoes were better satisfied with the location, and the Cape Fear Colony was established in 1665.

**88. The Proprietors.** — Charles II., on ascending the throne at the Restoration, rewarded many of his friends by giving them lands in

the New World. In **1663** the king granted land south of Virginia to eight proprietors, and in 1665 enlarged the territory. Carolina, as thus granted, extended from the present southern boundary of Virginia, on the north, many miles beyond the Spanish town of St. Augustine, on the south, and westward to the Pacific. Among these proprietors were the Earl of Clarendon, the Duke of Albemarle, Lord Ashley Cooper, and Sir William Berkeley. The proprietors permitted the settlers who had already arrived to remain, and offered liberal inducements to attract immigrants to the new colony. Within a few years, besides the Albemarle and Clarendon or Cape Fear counties, two other settlements were begun, one on the Ashley and Cooper rivers, called Charleston, and one farther south, at Port Royal. The Charleston settlement grew the more rapidly, and the southern portion of the colony became the more important.

**89. The Locke Constitution.** — The proprietors attempted to place over the colonists of Carolina a form of government entirely unsuited to the time and character of the people. John Locke, one of England's greatest philosophers, is said to have drawn up the constitution, and the proprietors strove to enforce it for twenty years. It was based on the idea that the mass of the people should not only have no voice in public affairs, but that they should belong to the land, and be incapable of rising above the lot to which they were born. The tenants should be bought and sold almost as slaves, while their owners were to constitute a privileged class, called the nobility. Such titles were bestowed as admiral, chancellor, baron, landgrave, and cazique, and the supreme ruler was called the palatine. The woodsmen and farmers refused to have anything to do with such a government, and before 1690 the proprietors abandoned the struggle. This was the only attempt ever made to establish a nobility in any of the colonies, and its result was to weaken the government and to injure the prosperity of the colony.

**90. North and South Carolina.** — The proprietors did not find so much profit in the colony as they had anticipated. Settlement went on very slowly, religious troubles became common, disorder and riots prevailed. In 1729, after an ownership of about sixty-five years, the proprietors gave up their rights to the king.

Carolina already consisted of two counties, each with its own governor and assembly. At this time the king decided to divide the colony, and the two provinces thus formed were called North and South Carolina.

## GEORGIA.

**91. Oglethorpe.** — The condition of the lower classes in England during the seventeenth century was very pitiable. The prisons were crowded with those who were unable to pay their debts, and these prisons were in a most terrible state. James Oglethorpe, a member of Parliament, was chairman of a committee on prisons. He was moved with compassion at the condition which he found, and formed the idea of establishing a colony for the poor and the oppressed. He prevailed upon the merchants of London, and upon Parliament also, to help pay the debts of those who were willing to emigrate to the New World.

James Oglethorpe.
(From an old engraving.)

**92. Government.** — In **1732** Oglethorpe obtained from King George II. a grant of land between the Savannah and Altamaha rivers. This colony was to be called Georgia, in honor of the king, and was founded for two special purposes. It was to be a refuge for the poor and the oppressed of all lands, and at the same time it was to form a protection to Carolina from the Spaniards in Florida. The king's charter placed Georgia for twenty-one years in the hands of twenty-one trustees, "in trust for the poor." The trustees were to have full power, but were to obtain no personal advantage from the colony. The result was unsatisfactory, however, and the trustees gladly surrendered their rights in 1752, and Georgia became a royal colony.

**93. Settlement.** — The first settlement within the colony was made by Oglethorpe himself with thirty-five families, in 1733, at Savannah. Some German Protestants came the following year, and other col-

onists soon followed. It was not long before the trustees found that others besides paupers were needed to make the colony a success. Scotch and German immigration was therefore encouraged, and as long as Oglethorpe remained in the colony, it enjoyed a general prosperity, although it continued to be scarcely more than an experiment up to the time of the Revolution.

## CHAPTER XIV.

### PENNSYLVANIA.

**94. Quakers.** — One of the results of the religious agitations in Europe during the seventeenth century (¶ 47) was the formation of the sect called Friends, or Quakers. George Fox was the founder of this denomination, and its peculiar features caused it to receive severe persecution. The Friends did not believe in any church with paid ministers or priests, and objected to State support of religion. They believed in the equality of persons, would not remove their hats even in the presence of the king, and used no titles in their conversation. They dressed very plainly, and refused to engage in war or attempt to enforce obedience to laws (¶ 182).

William Penn.
(After the painting in the rooms of the Pa. Hist. Soc., Phil.)

**95. William Penn.**—The doctrines of George Fox were accepted by a large number of those who were dissatisfied with the Church of England, and rich and poor alike joined the body of Friends. Among them was William Penn, a son of Admiral Sir William Penn, a man of high rank and a friend of King

Charles II. and his brother, then Duke of York. Penn became interested in the attempt of the Quakers to settle West Jersey, and determined to provide a refuge for those who might be persecuted for religion's sake. In **1681** Charles II. gave him a grant of the land now comprised within the limits of Pennsylvania, in payment of a debt which the government had owed to his father. The king called the country "Pennsylvania," or "Penn's Woods," in honor of the admiral, in spite of objections that Penn made to the name. By this charter Penn obtained a title to forty thousand square miles of land, which was increased the next year by the purchase of Delaware from the Duke of York (¶ 82).

**96. Settlement.** — The Swedes and the Dutch had begun small settlements on the banks of the Delaware many years before the grant to Penn. These villages were of but little account, however, and the real settlement of Pennsylvania may be said to have been made in 1681. Three vessels of Quakers came over in this year, and in the following year Penn himself arrived with a hundred companions. He landed at Newcastle, Del., and soon after held his first assembly at Chester, or Upland. Passing up the Delaware to its junction with the Schuylkill, Penn chose this strip of land to be the site for his capital, and in 1683 laid out the city of Philadelphia, or "Brotherly Love." He met the Indians under an elm-tree at Shackamaxon, and purchased the land from them for his city. Though the colony was founded for the sake of the despised Quakers, those who held other religious opinions were cordially invited, and persecution was unknown. Religious freedom and easy laws stimulated immigration, and the colony grew rapidly, with Germans and Scotch-Irish, as well as English, among its numbers.

> "The scene at Shackamaxon forms the subject of one of the pictures of West. Shall the event be commemorated by the pencil? Imagine the chiefs of the savage communities, of noble shape and grave demeanor, assembled in council without arms: the old men sit in a half-moon upon the ground; the middle-aged are in a like figure at a little distance behind them; the young foresters form a third semi-circle in the rear. Before them stands William Penn, graceful in the summer of life, in dress scarce distinguished by a belt, surrounded by a few Friends, chiefly young men, and, like Anaxagoras, whose example he cherished, pointing to the skies, as the tranquil home to which not Christians only, but
>
> 'the souls of heathen go,
> Who better live than we, though less they know.'"
>
> (Bancroft's History of the United States).

**97. Government.** — Penn prepared a "Frame of Government" and proposed it to the colonists, and the first Assembly adopted it.

Perfect religious freedom was accorded to all who believed in God, and the only religious qualification for the officers was that they be professing Christians. Many of the laws were such as would be particularly appropriate for a Quaker colony, and they made Pennsylvania, in many respects, a pattern for the other settlements. The same spirit showed itself in Penn's treatment of the Indians. He was always honest and straightforward in his dealings with them, so that they acquired a love and respect for him. This was doubtless the leading cause of the freedom that Pennsylvania enjoyed from Indian warfare.

The "Frame of Government" provides among other things, "That all persons living in this province, who confess and acknowledge the one Almighty and Eternal *God* to be the Creator, Upholder and Ruler of the world, and that hold themselves obliged, in conscience, to live peaceably and justly in civil society, shall, in no ways, be molested, or prejudiced, for their religious perswasion, or practice, in matters of faith and worship; nor shall they be compelled, at any time, to frequent, or maintain, any religious worship, place or ministry whatever."

## CHRONOLOGY.

**1589.** France — Reign of Henry IV.
**1598.** Spain — Reign of Philip III.
**1603.** England — Reign of James I.
**1605.** Port Royâl — Settlement by De Monts.
**1606.** Charter granted to London and Plymouth Companies, April 10.
**1607.** Jamestown — Settlement by London Company, May 13.
**1608.** Holland — Immigration of the Scrooby Pilgrims.
Quebec — Settlement by Champlain, July 3.
**1609.** Virginia — Second charter of the London Company.
Hudson River — Explored by Henry Hudson.
Lake Champlain — Explored by Champlain.
**1610.** France — Reign of Louis XIII.
**1612.** Virginia — Third charter of London Company.
**1614.** Fort Nassau — Built by Christiaensen.
**1619.** Virginia — First Legislative Assembly, July 30.
Virginia — First importation of negro slaves.
**1620.** Plymouth — Settlement by the Pilgrims, December 21, N. S.
New England — Charter of the Council of Plymouth.
**1621.** Spain — Reign of Philip IV.
**1623.** Manhattan — Settlement by the Dutch.
New Hampshire — Settlement at Dover and Portsmouth.
Massachusetts — Settlement at Cape Ann.

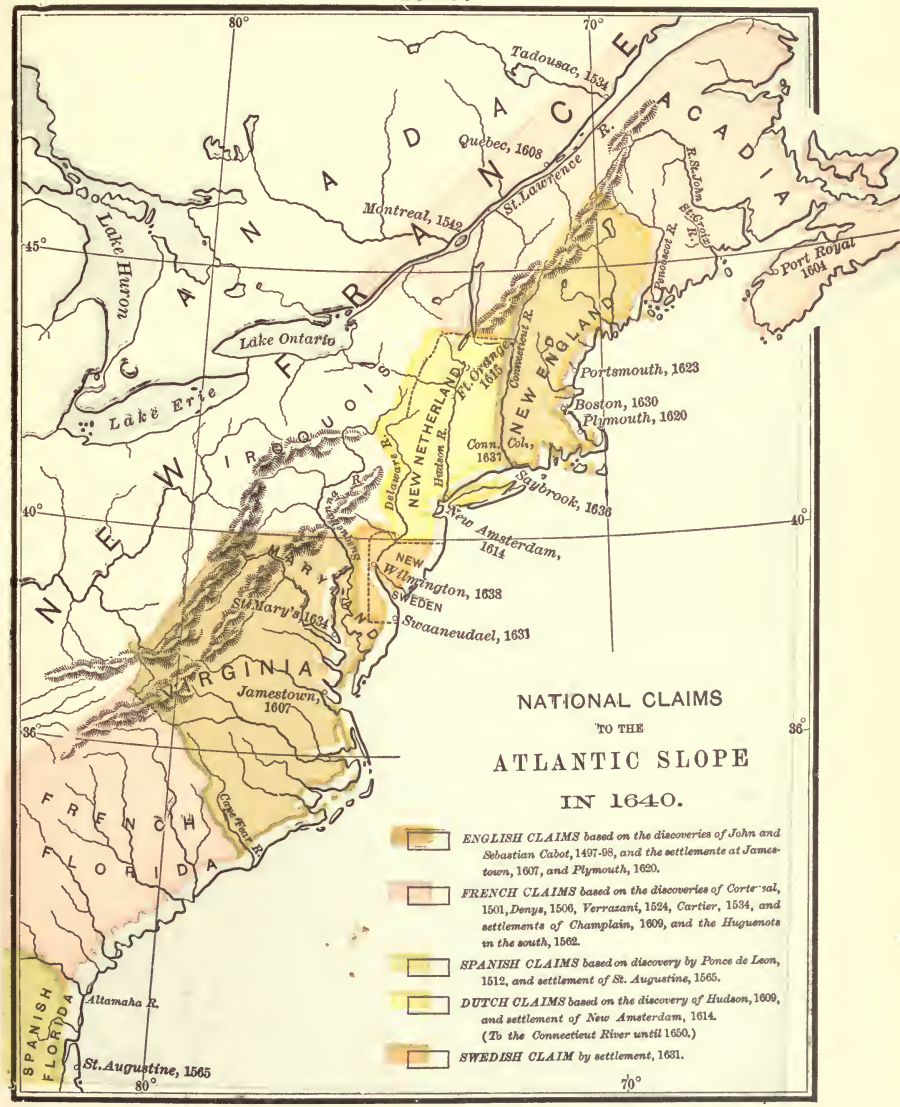
UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

**1624.** Virginia — Charter of London Company annulled.
**1625.** England — Reign of Charles I.
**1626.** Salem — Settlement by Conant.
**1629.** Massachusetts Bay — Charter granted, March 4.
**1630.** Boston — Settlement by Winthrop, August.
**1634.** Maryland — Settlement at St. Mary's, March.
**1635.** New England — Council of Plymouth resigns its patent.
**1635 to 1636.** Connecticut — Settlement at Wethersfield, Windsor, and Hartford.
**1636.** Rhode Island — Settlement at Providence.
**1637.** New England — Pequot War.
**1638.** Delaware — Settlement by the Swedes.
Rhode Island — Settlement at Newport.
Connecticut — Settlement at New Haven.
**1639.** Connecticut — Constitution adopted, January 14.
**1643.** France — Reign of Louis XIV.
**1649.** England — Commonwealth.
**1655.** Delaware — Conquered by the Dutch.
**1660.** England — The Restoration. Reign of Charles II.
**1662.** Connecticut — Charter granted, April 20.
**1663.** Rhode Island — Charter granted, July 8.
Carolina — Granted by Charles II., March 24.
**1664.** New York — Conquered by the English, September.
**1665.** New Jersey — Settlement at Elizabethtown.
Connecticut and New Haven united.
Spain — Reign of Charles II.
**1669.** Carolina — Locke's Constitution formed.
**1670.** South Carolina — Settlement at Old Charleston.
**1673.** Great Lakes — Explored by Marquette and Joliet.
**1674.** New Jersey — Divided into East and West Jersey.
**1675.** New England — King Philip's War begun.
**1681.** Pennsylvania — Granted to William Penn, March 4.
**1682.** Pennsylvania — Settlement at Philadelphia.
Mississippi River — Explored by La Salle.
Delaware — Sold to Penn.
**1685.** England — Reign of James II.
**1689.** England — Reign of William and Mary.
**1691.** Plymouth — United to Massachusetts.
**1700.** Spain — Reign of Philip V.
**1702.** England — Reign of Anne.
**1703.** Delaware — Becomes a separate colony.
**1714.** England — Reign of George I.
**1715.** France — Reign of Louis XV.
**1727.** England — Reign of George II.
**1733.** Georgia — Settlement at Savannah, February 12.

# Blackboard Analysis.

- COLONIAL WARS
  - Indian
    - Characteristics
      - Features.
      - Traits.
      - Occupations.
      - Distribution.
    - Warfare . .
      - Contrasts between Indians and White Men.
      - Implements of War.
      - Race Difficulties.
    - Pequots . . .
      - Indians in Connecticut.
      - The Story of the War.
      - The Tribe exterminated.
    - King Philip . .
      - The Tribe of the Pokanokets.
      - Attempt to exterminate the English.
      - Great Swamp-Fight.
      - The War Severe.
  - French
    - New France .
      - Early Explorers.
      - Settlements at Acadia and Quebec.
      - Explorations of the Jesuits.
      - La Salle's Discovery of the Mississippi.
      - Extent of the Country.
    - French Wars .
      - King William's War.
      - Queen Anne's War.
      - King George's War.
    - Fourth War . .
      - Causes of the War.
      - Attempt to unite the Colonies.
      - English Defeat under Braddock.
      - English Failures everywhere.
      - William Pitt comes to the Rescue.
      - Plan of Campaign.
      - Fall of Quebec.
    - Treaty of 1763
      - Conquest of Canada.
      - France shut out from North America.
      - Effect upon the English Colonies.

# 1640.

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Indian weapons.

## SECTION III.

### COLONIAL WARS.

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## CHAPTER XV.

### INDIAN CHARACTERISTICS.

**98. Indians.** — Europeans found this country inhabited by a copper-colored race of men whom they called Indians, supposing that this land was a part of the East Indies. They were divided into tribes, and each tribe was governed by a sachem. Most of these tribes were rude savages, living in huts called wigwams, made of bark and skins of animals. They lived in hamlets, or villages, and frequently moved from place to place. Individuals laid no claim to the land, but the tribal limits were sometimes well defined. Traces of half-civilized and civilized races were found in different parts of the country, especially in the great interior valley of the Mississippi and its branches.

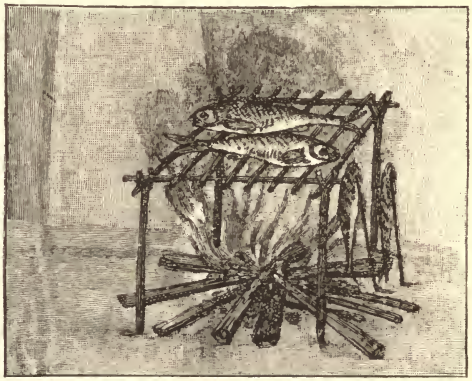
In Mexico, Central America, and Peru a higher degree of civilization existed. The people lived in permanent towns and cities, and were subject to an established government. They cultivated the soil, carried on various useful arts, built roads and substantial buildings, including temples of worship. In the Ohio and Mississippi valleys were found monuments of various kinds, such as mounds, fortifications, pyramids, temples. Here were also remains of pottery, implements of stone and copper, and occasionally rude sculptures.

**99. Features.** — The Indians were of moderate height, straight in form, active and athletic of limb. Their features were usually regular, and they had high cheek-bones like the people of interior and

northeastern Asia. They had uniformly long straight coarse black hair, but little beard or none at all. They were characterized by great physical endurance, and were staid, taciturn, and stoical.

Indian Method of Boiling.

**100. Mental and Moral Traits.** — Their mental and moral traits may be summarized as follows: they were daring, brave, and self-possessed; they were warm, cordial, and faithful to their friends, but treacherous, vindictive, and cruel to their enemies. They were usually stern and dignified in their bearing, and generally cautious and reserved before strangers. They had quick perceptions, which were highly cultivated by their manner of life. Their powers of observation, especially their senses of sight and hearing, were remarkably acute and accurate.



Indian Method of Broiling.

**101. Employment.** — In general they had no houses, except the wigwams already mentioned, and no regular occupation. Their chief support came from hunting and fishing. The women often cultivated small patches of ground, and raised Indian corn, melons, tobacco, and a few other plants. They were a roving people, rude and lazy. The principal employment of the Indians was hunting. They killed wild animals with the bow and arrow, or with darts or javelins. Being ignorant of the use of iron, they tipped their arrows with sharp-

pointed stones. The buffalo, the bear, the wolf, furnished them with food, dress, shelter, and warmth. They had no tame animals except the dog.

**102. Women.** — The women performed the hard labor of daily life. The wife, or squaw, was really a slave to her husband. Men bought their brides and sold their daughters. In return for their drudgery the women received very little but neglect and abuse. To children, after the years of infancy, but little attention was given.

**103. Great Tribes.** — The Indians of the United States east of the Mississippi were embraced principally in four great divisions: the Algonquins, the Iroquois, the Cherokees, the Appalaches. West of the Mississippi were the Dakotas, the Shoshones, the Apaches, the Comanches, all east of the Rocky Mountains. On the Pacific slope were found the Walla Wallas, the Nez Percés, the Flat Heads, the Spokanes, the Yakamas, the Clatsops, the Utahs, the Modocs, the Aztecs, the Zunis, the Pueblos, and numerous other tribes of less note.

In these different tribes were to be observed great differences of appearance, of disposition, of language, and of culture. The Indians who first met the white people on the Atlantic coast were of the various branches of Algonquins.

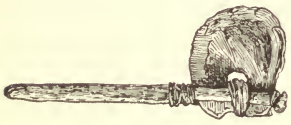
**104. Number of Indians.** — The number of Indians at the time of the first European settlement within what is now the United States has been variously estimated at from a quarter of a million to a million. Probably the former number is nearer the truth than the latter. At present these people, within the limits of our country, number about two hundred and sixty-five thousand. Until recently it had been estimated that the number was diminishing, but it is now generally considered that their number is slowly increasing, owing perhaps to the more humane treatment which prevails at the present time.

A Birch Bark Canoe

# CHAPTER XVI.

## EARLY CONFLICTS.

**105. Indians and White Men.** — On the first arrival of the white men the Indians were inclined to regard them as of supernatural origin. They treated them with hospitality, veneration, and confidence, but they soon discovered that the Europeans were mortal as well as themselves; and when the Spaniards, at an early date, and, later, the English kidnapped the Indians and sold them into slavery, used them as captive guides for explorations, and murdered them on slight provocation, sentiments of distrust and hatred naturally succeeded their feelings of awe and veneration. The Indians soon felt justified in wreaking their vengeance on the white race whenever they failed to find individual offenders.



Indian Shell Axe.

**106. Modes of Warfare.** — Under these circumstances the Indians became exceedingly cruel. Their mode of warfare was skulking; and when aroused to vengeance they appeared to enjoy nothing better than to pillage and burn the homes of the whites, and to murder with special cruelty the women and children. Hence the whites began to fear and to loathe the savage, and they often added greatly to the bitterness of the struggle by retaliation in kind. The white people themselves were too frequently brutal, reckless, and lawless, and under such conditions clashing between the white settlers and the Indians was inevitable.

**107. Difficulties between the Races.** — At the very first the white men were received by the Indians with friendship. Difficulties, however, would naturally arise; and as the colonies increased in number and pushed farther and farther into the country, the Indians saw that they were losing the land over which they had hitherto freely roamed, and upon which they had lived unmolested. Even the English settlers showed but little wisdom in their treatment of the Indians. A few men here and there treated them kindly, and some sought to make Christians of them. The Rev. John Eliot, of

Boston, spent his life in earnest efforts to Christianize them. He translated the Bible into their language. This was the first Bible printed in America. It was published in Cambridge in 1663.

**108. Pequot War.** — The first severe war that occurred between the English settlers and the Indians was in **1636**, and is known as the Pequot War. The Pequots were a savage tribe of Indians living mostly in Connecticut (¶ 64). In June, 1634, the Indians treacherously murdered two white men who had long been in the habit of visiting them to trade. In August, 1635, they inhumanly murdered a whole family, and soon afterwards the wife and children of another family near Hartford. These unprovoked acts of barbarity kindled the resentment of the English, and they began making preparations to exterminate the cruel tribe of Pequots. The Indians then sent messengers with gifts to the governor. Their attempts to conciliate the English, however, were in vain.

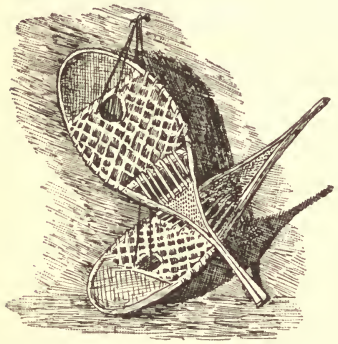
Indian War Club.

**109. Treaty soon broken.** — Again they sent messengers with a large quantity of wampum as a present to the governor and council. A treaty of peace was concluded, to which the Pequots readily agreed. It was not long, however, before the treacherous Indians commenced again their brutal murders. A severe war now ensued. The Pequots, in June, 1636, attacked Fort Saybrook, in which were about twenty men. The attacking party numbered one hundred and fifty. The firing of a cannon from the fort produced such deadly execution among the Indians, huddled together as they were, that they soon retreated, leaving their dead and wounded, about twenty in number, behind them. In this attack the English sustained no loss.

**110. War general.** — Soon after this, Captain Endicott proceeded against Block Island, which was inhabited by Pequots, killed many Indians, destroyed their wigwams and supplies, and then sailed away to the Connecticut coast. The Indians on the mainland at once made cruel war upon the English. The Connecticut Colony suffered most. Troops were sent from Massachusetts to aid in the contest. Roger Williams, of Rhode Island, performed heroic service

at this critical juncture. Alone and unarmed, he travelled more than twenty miles through the wilderness to the Narragansetts, and at the risk of his life entreated them not to join the Pequots in their war against the English. He succeeded in persuading them to keep the peace.

111. **War continued.** — The English now showed no mercy. The war continued through 1636 and the spring and early summer of 1637. The report of the unprovoked cruelties and savage barbarities of the Pequots roused the other colonies to the most spirited exertions. Massachusetts determined to send two hundred men, and Plymouth Colony forty more, to assist in prosecuting the war. A severe engagement took place in May, near Fort Saybrook, on the Connecticut. Several engagements followed, with terrible results to the Indians. A severe battle took place in the latter part of May, 1637, near Groton. The Indians were encamped in a thick swamp, but they were surrounded by the English and their Indian allies, and after a severe engagement the wigwams were set on fire, and but few Indians escaped. Eighty wigwams were burned and upwards of eight hundred Indians destroyed. The loss of the English was comparatively small, not exceeding twenty-five killed and wounded.



Indian Snow Shoes.

112. **Results.** — The war had been a terrible one. It was characterized by much personal bravery. A large proportion of the several colonies were put to great and immediate danger; but they were so resolute that although greatly outnumbered by the Indians, they were entirely successful, and the Indians were utterly vanquished. By the bravery and unconquerable resolution of less than one hundred men, Connecticut was saved and the most warlike tribe of Indians in New England completely exterminated. A league called the United Colonies of New England was formed in 1643 (¶ 189).

# CHAPTER XVII.

## PHILIP OF POKANOKET.

**113. The Pokanokets.** — In the early history of New England the Wampanoags, or Pokanokets, were a strong and numerous tribe of Indians, occupying considerable territory in the southeastern part of Massachusetts, and in Rhode Island, bordering upon Narragansett Bay. For forty years after the settlement of Plymouth the chief or king of this tribe was the good Massasoit. His home was at Sowams, which is the site of the present town of Warren, Rhode Island. The whole region was called Pokanoket. Massasoit was always friendly to the whites, and gave shelter to Roger Williams during those fourteen weeks of winter weather (¶ 66).

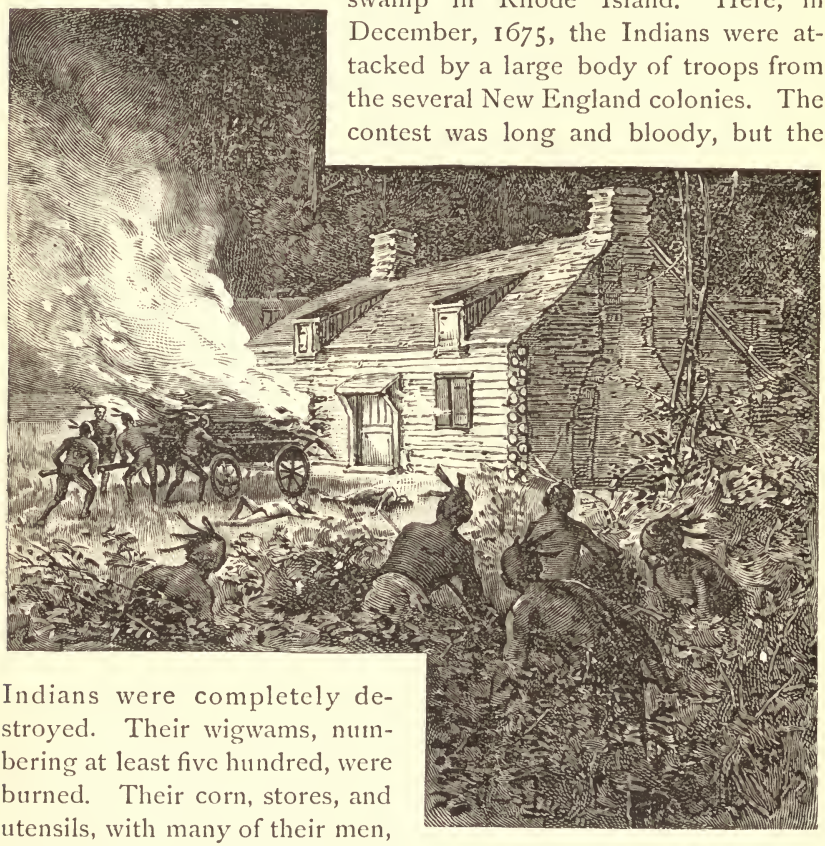
> **The settlers of Plymouth** were very fortunate in that the Indians did not disturb them during the terrors of the first winter. In fact, they saw nothing of them, and it was not until the next spring that they were terrified by the sight of an Indian approaching the village. The fear was partially relieved by the first words which he uttered: "Welcome, Englishmen." This Indian was Samoset, who had learned to speak a little English from some fishermen along the coast of Maine. Samoset proved a true friend indeed to the colonists, and was in the habit of mingling freely with them. He brought the chief of the Indians of the vicinity, named Massasoit, to visit the village, and Governor Bradford was able to make a treaty with him. This treaty was kept by both parties; and in spite of a few hostile threats, the Indians did not attack Plymouth for about fifty years.

**114. King Philip.** — Philip, the son of Massasoit, became the sachem of his tribe about 1661. From that time, for fourteen years he was constantly engaged in plotting against the whites. Again and again was he charged with conspiracy against them, which he invariably denied. He frequently made treaties and affected friendship with the whites, only to break his promises and renew his plottings. Philip made strenuous efforts to secure the aid of the Narragansett tribe, living in Rhode Island. He determined upon the annihilation of the English at all hazards. He was a man of great courage, strong will, and invincible determination.

**115. The War begun.** — The first blow fell upon the people of Swansea, on Thursday, June 24, **1675**. For more than a year the savages carried on their aggressive warfare, skulking here and there, pouncing upon unarmed citizens, burning towns, and killing

with merciless cruelty men, women, and children alike. The towns destroyed and injured were scattered over Massachusetts and Rhode Island, extending from Taunton, Swansea, and Rehoboth on the one side, to Springfield, Northampton, and Deerfield on the other.

**116. The Great Swamp Fight.** — The Narragansetts finally joined Philip, and fortified themselves in a great fort situated within a swamp in Rhode Island. Here, in December, 1675, the Indians were attacked by a large body of troops from the several New England colonies. The contest was long and bloody, but the Indians were completely destroyed. Their wigwams, numbering at least five hundred, were burned. Their corn, stores, and utensils, with many of their men, women, and children perished in the flames. More than a thousand Indians were killed. It was the greatest defeat the Indians had ever sustained.



The Attack on Brookfield, Mass.

**117. The Final Struggle.** — Philip was now hunted from place to place. His followers had either been overcome in battle or had deserted him, until he was left with but a handful of his former

army. At length he took refuge near his old home at Mount Hope. There, in August, 1676, he was attacked by Captain Church with a small body of colonists, and the heart of the great chieftain was pierced by the ball of an Indian. The great contest was ended by the capture of Philip's only remaining general, Annawan, by Captain Church. The capture of Annawan was accomplished by a bold stratagem, and the account of it reads like a tale from the "Arabian Nights."

King Philip.
(After an old anonymous print.)

**118. The Cost of the War.** — Thus King Philip's War was ended. The amount of suffering which it had occasioned was enormous. At least thirteen towns were wholly destroyed, and a number of others sustained more or less damage. Over six hundred of the colonists fell in battle, and many more were wounded. Scarcely a family could be found in which some one had not suffered. The principal burden fell upon Massachusetts and Plymouth. The loss in property was not less than half a million of dollars, — a large sum for those days, and as great in proportion as the cost of the Revolutionary War was for the nation a hundred years later. More than six hundred buildings had been consumed by fire. It was years before some of the towns were rebuilt.

**119. The Result.** — This struggle was the most severe that the colonies experienced with the natives at any time. It was really a case of life or death. Had Philip succeeded, he would have swept out of existence every white man in New England. After the contest was over, the settlers had a long period for rest and recuperation.

King Philip's Helmet.

# CHAPTER XVIII.

## NEW FRANCE.

**120. France in America.** — The history of the French in America is an interesting one. The French people, at a very early date, manifested their interest in securing for France a strong foothold in the New World.

**121. Verrazano** was sent out by the French king in 1524, to find the new way to the East Indies. He coasted along our shore from the Carolinas to New York and Newport. He named the country New France (¶ 16).

**122. James Cartier** discovered the St. Lawrence River in 1534. The next year, on a second voyage, he ascended the river as far as the site of Montreal. The lofty hill back of the Indian village he named Mount Royal (¶ 17).

**123. John Ribault,** under the patronage of Coligny, established a colony in 1562, at Port Royal, South Carolina. The people erected a fort, which they named Carolana. After extreme suffering they abandoned the settlement and returned to Europe (¶ 19).

**124. Laudonnière,** in 1564, with three ships, landed at the harbor now known as St. Augustine, coasted to the north, entered the river St. John's, which he called the River of May, and built a fort (¶ 20). The next year the Spaniards, under Menendez, surprised the garrison and put them to the sword; only a few persons, including Laudonnière, escaped by flight. Menendez was a Spaniard, and his settlement at St. Augustine becoming permanent, Florida became Spanish territory. The French were, however, more successful at the North than at the South.

**125. Samuel Champlain** ascended the St. Lawrence in two small barks in 1603, and was captivated by the beauties of the country and the attractions of the great river. He was seized with a longing to plant a French empire and the Catholic faith in this New World.

**126. Pierre de Monts,** with Champlain, explored the Bay of Fundy, visited and named the river St. John, wintered on a little island at

the mouth of the river St. Croix, and in the summer of 1605 founded the colony at Port Royal, Nova Scotia. This was the first permanent French settlement in America. It was three years before the first settlement in Canada, and two years before that of Jamestown, Virginia.

Champlain made another voyage in 1608, and established the first permanent French settlement in Canada, at Quebec. The next year he discovered the beautiful lake which bears his name. He succeeded in establishing the authority of France in the Valley of the St. Lawrence. He has been styled "The Father of New France."

The Valley of the Mississippi was early explored by French Jesuit priests, and many of the French names still found in that valley were first given by these priests more than two centuries ago.

127. **Father Marquette,** in 1673, floated in a birch-bark canoe down the Wisconsin and the Mississippi rivers as far south as the mouth of the Arkansas.

128. **The Chevalier de La Salle** undertook various expeditions, which, though often filled with hardships, were also full of romantic adventures. He was inspired with a strong desire to find the outlet of the Mississippi River; and in 1682, he succeeded in floating down that river to its very mouth, where it emptied its waters into the Gulf of Mexico. It was La Salle that named this whole country Louisiana, in honor of his king, Louis XIV.

129. **French Explorers.** — Before the year 1700, the French explorers, led by such men as La Salle, Joliet, Father Hennepin, and Father Marquette, had explored the Great Lakes, and the Fox, Maumee, Wabash, Wisconsin, and Illinois rivers, and the Mississippi from the Falls of St. Anthony to the Gulf. They had traversed the valley region from Newfoundland up the Valley of the St. Lawrence, through the Great Lakes, down the Mississippi River and its branches, and westward to Texas. They had planted here and there in the wilderness rude settlements, and later they erected a line of forts, extending through the two valleys of these two great rivers.

130. **New France.** — This whole region, comprising both valleys, — that is, the Valley of the St. Lawrence and the whole country be-

tween the Alleghanies and the Rocky Mountains, — they had taken possession of in the name of the French king, and had named it New France. Meanwhile, the English had made larger, stronger, and more permanent settlements along the Atlantic coast, occupying but a narrow strip, which extended from Maine to Georgia. At about this time, these English colonies contained probably two hundred thousand inhabitants; while the whole of New France possessed a population of perhaps not more than ten thousand.

## CHAPTER XIX.

### FRANCE VERSUS ENGLAND.

**131. The Mouth of the Mississippi.** — It was a beautiful spring day in 1682, when La Salle reached the mouth of the Mississippi, and found that this great river emptied its waters into the Gulf of Mexico. Then he set up a rude wooden cross bearing the arms of France, and with volleys of musketry and loud shouts of "God save the King!" took possession in the name of France of all that vast territory watered by the Mississippi and its tributaries. The extent of this region was then unknown, but it included all the country from the Alleghanies to the Rocky Mountains, and extended from the torrid gulf upon the south to the Great Lakes of the north. This wide expanse was twice as large as all France, Spain, Great Britain, and Germany combined. La Salle was a loyal subject of his king and a faithful son of his church. It was, therefore, with commendable pride that he dedicated this fertile garden in the heart of the new world to the church and to his king. He named the whole region *Louisiana;* but the general name which was applied to all the French possessions in America, including both this section and Canada, was *New France.*

**132. French Hopes.** — From what we have learned, it will readily be seen that the French pioneers were bold, energetic, and enterprising, and that they had great expectations for the future of New France in America.

**133. The English and the French.** — It cannot be supposed that Great Britain and her colonies in America could look with much

complacency upon these vigorous efforts of the Frenchmen to secure for their country such a wide region. But, meanwhile, the English colonists in the east had done little or nothing toward exploring and occupying additional territory. They contented themselves with holding their first settlements along the Atlantic coast. The Alleghany Mountains formed a natural barrier between their homes and the French forts in the Mississippi Valley. What France had secured, she was thoroughly determined to retain. This is evident from the long line of forts which had been built since La Salle had made his explorations from the Lakes to the Gulf. In the Old World the English and the French nations had long been natural enemies to each other. The grasping intentions of France in America did not tend to make the English any more friendly to the French. The natural antipathy between the two nationalities was quite as strong in America as in Europe.

**134. The Indians.** — The English settlements, as we have seen, had much trouble with the Indians. The Pequot War, and especially King Philip's War, had brought about a chronic state of alienation and hostility between the two races. On the other hand, the French priests had won the good-will of the Indians in their section of the country. War broke out between the rival colonies in 1689, and the contest then begun extended, with intervals of peace, over seventy years. The final settlement between the two nations brought conditions of permanent peace only by the absolute triumph of one party and the total annihilation of the other. The long, protracted struggle for supremacy on this continent was in reality one war, but it was divided into four parts, and is therefore generally denominated in the histories, The Four French and Indian Wars.

## CHAPTER XX.

### KING WILLIAM'S, QUEEN ANNE'S, AND KING GEORGE'S WARS.

**135. Four French Wars.** — These four wars were all carried on between Great Britain and the English colonies of North America on the one side, and France, with her American colonies and Indian allies, on the other side. When the war first broke out in 1689,

William and Mary had just become king and queen of Great Britain. The first of the four wars took place within this reign, and is therefore usually denominated King William's War. Queen Anne came to the throne in 1702, and the second war, occurring during her reign, is hence called Queen Anne's War. King George I. ascended the throne of Great Britain in 1714, and George II. in 1727. George II. reigned until 1760, when he was succeeded by George III. The third of these wars is called King George's War; and the fourth and final contest — which was the most important, and really the decisive one — has usually been called the French and Indian War.

**Hannah Dustin.** — The first house attacked in Haverhill was that of Thomas Dustin, and the Indians carried off Mrs. Dustin, her babe, and nurse. The house was burned; and she, rising from her sick bed, was obliged to hasten away with her savage captors. When one of the captives became weary, or lagged in the march, he was immediately tomahawked and abandoned. Though her babe was killed and she herself was weak from illness, Hannah Dustin travelled a dozen miles that day. In spite of the keen March wind, she was able to keep on with her savage captors through snow, ice, and mud. Finally their long march was ended, and their last halt was made at a small island at the mouth of the Contoocook River. She was assigned as a slave to an Indian family of twelve persons, — two stout men, three women, and seven children. She remained on the island five weeks. On the night of the last day of April, Mrs. Dustin, her nurse, and a boy who was with them, killed the Indians while asleep. Then gathering up what stock of provisions the wigwam afforded, she took her master's gun and the tomahawk with which she had killed him. Scuttling the canoes, except one for their own use, they embarked in it down the Merrimac River. After a hundred miles' journey, Mrs. Dustin reached her home and presented herself to her friends, who had given her up for dead.

### KING WILLIAM'S WAR.

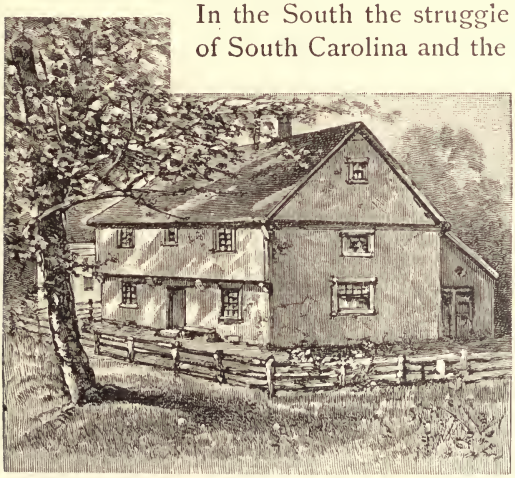
**136. The War begun.** — This war was begun by the eastern Indians, who were allies of the French. Their first attacks were upon the settlements in Maine and New Hampshire. They destroyed Dover (¶ 63), and carried away many prisoners to Canada. They captured Fort Pemaquid, and massacred many inhabitants living on the Salmon Falls River and around Casco Bay. In **1690** certain settlements in New York were attacked. At Schenectady sixty persons were massacred, and many captives were taken. The English now raised an army, and under command of General Winthrop marched against Montreal; another force from Boston, in charge of Sir William Phips, sailed away for Quebec. Both these expeditions were failures, except that Phips captured Port Royal.

**137. The Five Nations.** — The war would have proved far more destructive to the English than it did had it not been for the friendship of those Indians who were called the Five Nations. New

York had made a treaty with them in 1684, and the same year the French governor of Canada had sent an expedition against them which had failed. In 1691 Major Schuyler persuaded the Indians of the Five Nations to join him in an attack upon the French settlements. He did much damage to the French, but was finally compelled to retreat. In 1697 the French and Indians attacked Haverhill in Massachusetts, and killed or captured forty persons. It is in connection with this attack on Haverhill that the thrilling incident of Mrs. Dustin's capture and escape is recorded. King William's War was ended in 1697 by a treaty of peace which was signed at Ryswick, in Holland. By this treaty both parties retained the same territories as before the war.

## QUEEN ANNE'S WAR.

**138. A New Contest.** — Five years only elapsed before the peace of Ryswick was broken by a war between England on the one side and France and Spain on the other. The war soon involved the colonies in America, and this contest was known as Queen Anne's War. In the South the struggle was between the English of South Carolina and the Spaniards of Florida.



An old House at Deerfield, Mass.

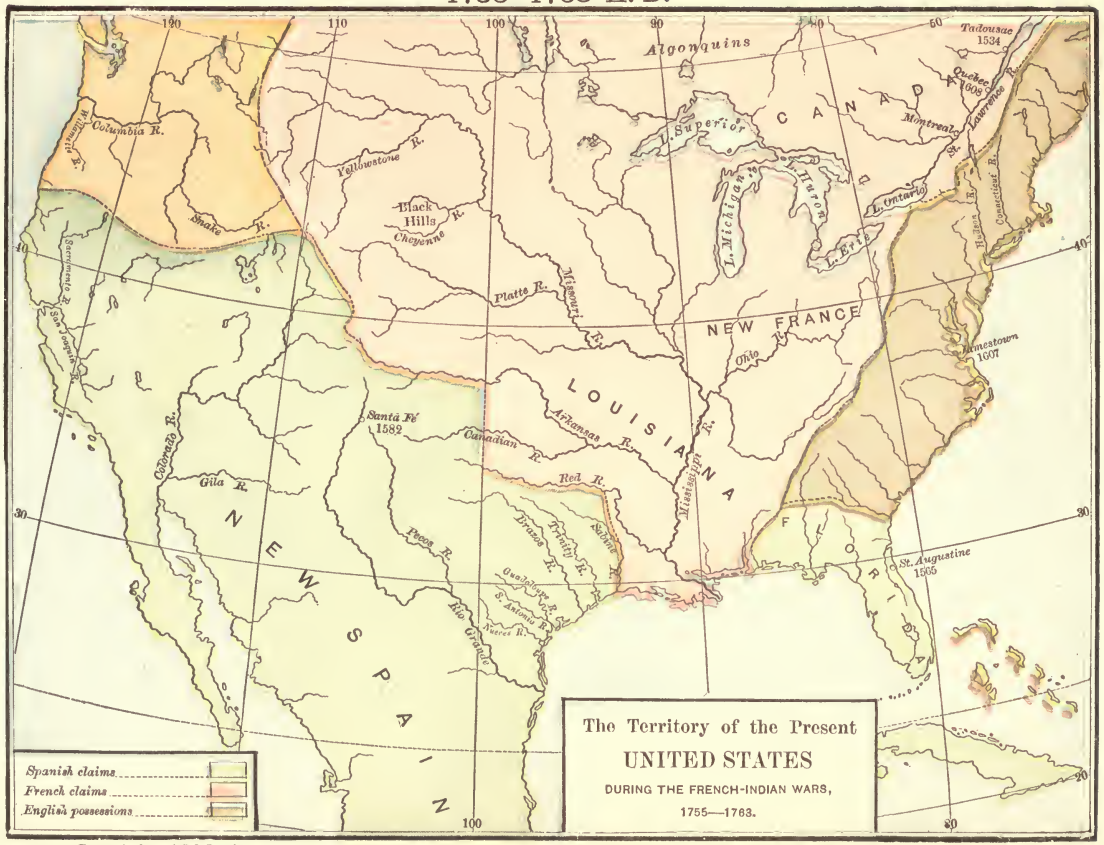
**139. Horrors of the War.** — The real horrors of the war were, however, confined almost entirely to the New England colonies. In 1704 Deerfield, in Massachusetts, was sacked, and the inhabitants massacred. Those who escaped death were carried captive to Canada. In 1707 an expedition was fitted out in New England against Port Royal in Acadia. This expedition proved a failure; but three years later another attempt was successful, Port Royal was captured, and the country became a British province under the name of Nova Scotia. A futile effort was made against Montreal and Quebec in

1711. The war was ended in 1713 by the treaty of Utrecht. No change of territory resulted from this war, except the transfer of Acadia, or Nova Scotia, to the English.

**140. The French at the West.** — This war had seriously interfered with the progress of the French in the West, but, during the period of peace which followed, France was particularly active in the Mississippi Valley. The city of New Orleans was founded in 1718 and made the capital of all Louisiana. A colony had previously been planted at Mobile, which was now rapidly becoming a place of importance. The French power was firmly establishing itself in the Northwest. Fort Niagara was built in 1728, Crown Point in 1731, and an important post was later established at Vincennes. Before 1750, the French had control of all the water-ways between the Lakes and the Gulf. Their military stations between Lake Ontario and New Orleans were more than sixty in number, indicating the grand design of France to found a great empire which should include the Valley of the St. Lawrence, the country around the Great Lakes, and the Valley of the Mississippi.

### KING GEORGE'S WAR.

**141. The Third War.** — These schemes of the French were again interrupted by the outbreak of King George's War, in **1744**. Like the two preceding contests, this war began in Europe, but soon extended to the colonies in North America. The war was of short duration. The most important event in it was the capture of Louisburg, on Cape Breton Island. General Pepperell, a native of Maine, in command of more than three thousand troops from New England, and assisted by a British fleet under command of Admiral Warren, captured this place in June, 1745. The history of this contest is interesting, but the results of the capture were not important. The French failed in two attempts to reconquer Cape Breton Island. King George's War was brought to an end by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748. All places taken by either party from the other during the war were, by this treaty, to be restored. Accordingly the French again came into possession of Louisburg and Cape Breton Island.

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# CHAPTER XXI.

## THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.

**142. The Final Struggle.** — Now comes the last of the four Indian Wars in America. The three which we have already considered originated in Europe. This, which was the final and decisive contest, has been usually denominated "The French and Indian War." It was occasioned by the still unsettled boundaries of the English and French colonies in North America. Both France and England were ambitious to secure absolute dominion of this whole continent. In 1749 King George II. granted a large tract of land on the Ohio River to a company of merchants styled the Ohio Company. In 1752 this company endeavored to establish themselves on the Monongahela River, south of the present Pittsburg. Their agents were seized by the French and detained as prisoners in their fort. Soon after this the French began a line of fortifications in that region. The governor of Virginia remonstrated, claiming that the territory was within the charter limits of his colony. George Washington, then but twenty-one years of age, was the bearer of despatches from Governor Dinwiddie of Virginia to the commander of these French forts.

**George Washington** at this early age possessed those qualities which in later life made him so famous. He was already a skilful surveyor, and an officer in the Virginia militia. He was wonderfully strong and athletic. He could outrun, outleap, outride all the young men of his acquaintance. Many instances are told of his youthful prowess and athletic accomplishments. Moreover, he was brave, honest, dutiful to his parents, and loyal to the government. The journey which Washington was obliged to make with these despatches was a hazardous one. He reached the French forts, and was treated with great courtesy. The French officers were evidently much impressed with Washington's sagacity and ability. The return trip was even more dangerous. Washington narrowly escaped drowning in the Alleghany River, and nearly lost his life at the hands of a hostile Indian. On his arrival at Williamsburg, the Virginia capital, the story of his adventures and escape greatly interested and aroused the Virginia officers.

**143. Fort Du Quesne.** — In **1754** Washington was again sent to the frontier at the head of a body of Virginia troops, with the rank of major, under orders to dislodge the French. They had built a fort at the junction of the two rivers which form the Ohio, where Pittsburg now stands. This fort the French called Fort Du Quesne. It was too strong to be captured by his small

force, yet Washington succeeded in surprising and defeating a party of their troops, and brought on the war which the French wished to defer. He was finally attacked by a superior force and obliged to retire from the disputed territory.

**144. Union of Colonies.** — The British government advised the colonies to unite for the common defence. A colonial congress was accordingly held at Albany with delegates from the four New England colonies, and New York, Pennsylvania, and Maryland. Benjamin Franklin drew up a plan of union which was adopted by the congress, but was rejected both by Great Britain and the colonies themselves. The colonies objected because it gave too much power to the British government; Great Britain objected because it gave too much power to the colonies. Nothing remained, therefore, but that war should be carried on by British forces aided by such troops as the several colonies might furnish.

**Benjamin Franklin** was one of the most prominent characters of his time. He was born in Boston, in January, 1706. Being the youngest of a large family, his father took him from school at the age of ten years to work in his shop, cutting wicks and filling moulds for candles. The boy was a great reader. "Robinson Crusoe" and "Pilgrim's Progress" were his early favorites. When he was seventeen years old he went to Philadelphia, and was employed in a printing-office.

He edited and published "The Pennsylvania Gazette," and the articles written by himself became so popular that the paper yielded him a comfortable income. He became famous throughout the world by a collection of wit and wisdom, couched in quaint and pithy language, and published as "Poor Richard's Almanac." He invented a famous "open stove for the better warming of rooms," and discovered the important fact that lightning is identical with the electricity in a Leyden jar from an electrical machine. He was made postmaster of Philadelphia when he was little more than thirty years of age, and later he organized the mail postal system of the colonies, and was made deputy postmaster-general of the whole country. From the very beginning of the difficulties between the colonies and the mother country, he became a conspicuous figure in continental politics.

**145. General Braddock.** — The British placed General Braddock in command of the forces of America. He planned three expeditions; one against Fort Du Quesne, which he himself was to command, another against Fort Niagara under command of General Shirley, and the third under Sir William Johnson, against Crown Point. Great preparations were now made by the various colonies, which raised troops and furnished supplies for these several expeditions.

**146. Expedition against Acadia.** — In May, 1755, an expedition was fitted out at Boston against the French people of Acadia in New Brunswick. The French inhabitants of that country were seized and carried by British officers away from their homes and distributed among the English colonies. There were about eight thousand of these simple-

minded peasants who were dispossessed of their property and dispersed along the Atlantic Coast. This wholesale banishment has been severely condemned, and all that can be said in its defence is that it was resorted to as the only sure means of holding this conquered country.

**147. Braddock's Defeat.** — Braddock's expedition against Fort Du Quesne resulted in a disastrous defeat. The English general was totally unfamiliar with the Indian modes of warfare, and scornfully rejected the advice given him by young Washington as to the proper method of fighting Indians. The troops fell into an ambuscade, and Braddock was among the slain. Washington, with his Virginia troops, covered the retreat and saved the remnant of the army from annihilation. He retreated with what force remained to Philadelphia.

**148. Other Expeditions.** — General Shirley's expedition against Fort Niagara was likewise unsuccessful, and accomplished nothing except to leave garrisons in two small forts which he erected. Sir William Johnson marched against Crown Point with a force of six thousand men. The first battle was favorable to the French, but after a desperate fight, in the "Battle of Lake George," the French were defeated. Johnson did not, however, consider his force strong enough to attack Crown Point. He therefore built a fort on Lake George, which he called Fort William Henry, left a garrison there, as well as at Fort Edward, and returned to Albany.

**149. War declared.** — In May, **1756**, a formal declaration of war was made between France and Great Britain. The French appointed General Montcalm commander of their forces. The English government sent over Lord Loudon to command the forces of Great Britain and her colonies. In August of that year, Montcalm, with six thousand French troops and Indian allies, captured Fort Ontario on the Oswego River, and fourteen hundred men were compelled to

surrender. They gave up one hundred and thirty-five cannon, a large amount of military stores, and many vessels upon the lake. This was a severe blow to the cause of the English, and broke up the whole plan of the campaign.

**150. English Disasters.** — The next year, 1757, was full of disasters to the English. Montcalm, with a large force numbering eight thousand French and Indians, captured Fort William Henry and about two thousand men. By the terms of capitulation the English were promised a safe escort to Fort Edward, but the Indians carried on a wholesale plunder and massacred a large number of the English troops. Lord Loudon with a strong force set out on an expedition against Louisburg on the island of Cape Breton, but got no farther than Halifax. It was soon evident that this British officer did not possess the requisite qualities for a commander of so large a force. About this time William Pitt, the famous British statesman, became Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, and entered upon the American campaign with great vigor. He removed Lord Loudon and placed General Abercrombie in command of the forces in this country. Additional troops were raised and sent over. When Abercrombie took command in America he found himself at the head of fifty thousand troops, more than half of whom had been raised by the colonies. He planned three expeditions; one against Louisburg, another against Crown Point and Ticonderoga, and the third against Fort Du Quesne.

**151. Louisburg.** — The expedition against Louisburg was made in the summer of **1758**. Admiral Boscawen brought over from England, in a large fleet, a force of twelve thousand men with General Amherst in command, and General Wolfe, who later was the leader

of the English forces which captured Quebec, second in command. The French garrison numbered about half the English force, and after a brave resistance it was compelled to surrender. Both the Island of Cape Breton and Prince Edward's Island fell into the hands of the English with a large quantity of supplies and warlike material.

**152. Ticonderoga.** — At Ticonderoga the English were less successful. General Abercrombie attacked the fort in July with a large force numbering not less than fifteen thousand. The French garrison could not muster one-third of that number, but the commander was no other than the Marquis Montcalm, a brave and gallant soldier. Before the English army had a chance to approach the fort, the French general came out and attacked it. By constant skirmishing with the English he delayed the final engagement for several days. At length Abercrombie made a general assault upon the fort, determined to capture it at all hazards; but, although his army was greatly superior in numbers, he was repulsed with a loss of full two thousand men, and compelled to retreat to Lake George. The English and colonial forces under command of General Bradstreet captured Fort Frontenac at the outlet of Lake Ontario, where Kingston now stands. At this place a number of war vessels and more than fifty cannon with other stores and munitions fell into the hands of the English.

**153. Fort Pitt.** — The third expedition planned by the English and their colonies was against Fort Du Quesne. This was a strategic point of much importance (¶ 143). The English forces were under command of General Forbes and numbered about nine thousand men. Colonel Washington with his Virginia troops had the post of honor as the advance-guard. On their arrival at the fort they found that it had been abandoned. The French, before retreating, had burned the fort and its contents. The occasion of their withdrawal was that their forces had from time to time been reduced until they were too weak to resist an attack from the British and American army. Soon after a new fort was erected at this place and named Fort Pitt in honor of the British statesman.

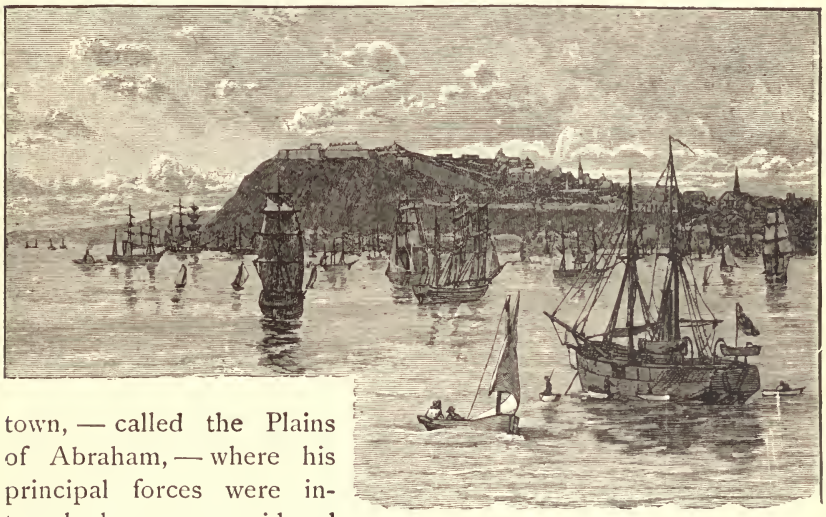
The next year another change of commanders took place. General Amherst was given the command of all the English forces in America. Again three expeditions were devised; General Wolfe

was to attack Quebec, General Amherst was to make another effort to capture Ticonderoga and Crown Point, and General Prideaux was to capture Niagara and then march against Montreal.

**154. Battle of Quebec.** — The army of General Wolfe, which sailed up the St. Lawrence in forty war vessels, numbered from eight to ten thousand regulars of the British army. It was the twenty-seventh of June when he landed on an island a few miles below Quebec. The French garrison was principally composed of a militia force of Canadians. The regular troops probably did not number more than two thousand, with full ten thousand of the militia. From this point, General Wolfe for more than a month made various attempts to press the siege of Quebec, all of which were unsuccessful. Meantime, Montcalm strengthened himself by drawing off forces from other points. The consequence was that General Amherst was able to capture Ticonderoga and Crown Point, which surrendered in July. At Niagara, also, the British were successful, after a brief siege in which General Prideaux was killed.

**155. The Supreme Moment.** — Now all interest centred at Quebec. The destiny of the whole continent hung in the balance. It was *the supreme moment in American history.* If the French had succeeded and the English had been defeated, the continent would inevitably have remained under the domination of France. North America would doubtless have been French to-day, and not English. On the other hand, if the English captured the town, it would prove the death-knell of France in this country. Montcalm was a brave and a distinguished general. Wolfe, still a young man, was equally brave and skilful. The two armies were large; and as the delay continued, the French steadily strengthened their position, and their army became more efficient. Wolfe, through the month of August, continued his camp at Montmorenci below the city. Early in September he withdrew from this point, and a portion of his forces occupied Point Levi while the others took up their quarters at the point of Orleans.

**156. The Final Blow.** — When the British broke camp at Montmorenci, abandoned their intrenchments, and re-embarked their forces on vessels, removing their heaviest pieces of artillery from Point Levi, the French general, considering the lateness of the season, believed the English were about to raise the siege and sail away. He thought that this attempt of the English had failed. Montcalm, however, was constantly on the alert; no precaution was spared. He increased his forces above Quebec, and ordered a sharp watch of the entire shore. The heights near the town, — called the Plains of Abraham, — where his principal forces were intrenched, were considered inaccessible. Montcalm himself believed them safe. He thought the English could not reach these heights unless they had wings. Of the very place where they afterwards landed, he said, "a hundred men posted there would stop their whole army." Two weeks elapsed before the final blow was struck. The main body of the British was above the city. On the night of September 12th, they floated down the river in boats and landed at the foot of the abrupt precipice.



Quebec.

**157. Heights of Abraham.** — It was a still night, and there was no moon. Slowly and cautiously the British crawled up the rugged path; and at dawn, **September 13th, 1759,** Montcalm beheld the

army of his enemy drawn up in battle array on the Heights of Abraham. The battle was a severe one. It lasted for many hours. At ten o'clock Wolfe saw that the crisis was near. A terrific onslaught ensued. Wolfe led the charge at the head of the Louisburg grenadiers. His wrist was shattered, but he wrapped his handkerchief about it and kept on. A second shot struck him, but he still advanced. A third ball lodged in his breast. He staggered and sat on the ground. A few moments after, one of them cried, "They run; see how they run!" "Who run?" demanded Wolfe. "The enemy, sir; they give way everywhere." "Go, one of you, to Colonel Burton," returned the dying man; "tell him to march Webb's regiment down to Charles River to cut off their retreat from the bridge." Then, turning on his side, he murmured, "Now God be praised, I will die in peace;" and in a few moments his life had ebbed away. Montcalm, still on his horse, was borne with the tide of his retreating troops toward the town. Before reaching the gate, a shot passed through his body. He was carried into the city. When the surgeon told him that his wound was mortal, he replied, "So much the better; for then I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec."

It was still five days before the city surrendered. On the square before the castle of St. Louis, many years afterward, a monument was erected to the joint memory of Wolfe and Montcalm, who both gave up their lives in the great battle which settled the destiny of all North America.

**General Wolfe.** — Parkman, in "Montcalm and Wolfe," gives the following graphic description of the scene: —

"For full two hours the procession of boats, borne on the current, steered silently down the St. Lawrence. The stars were visible, but the night was moonless and sufficiently dark. The General was in one of the foremost boats, and near him was a young midshipman, John Robison, who used to tell in his later life how Wolfe, with a low voice, repeated Gray's 'Elegy in a Country Churchyard' to the officers about him. Probably it was to relieve the intense strain of his thoughts. Among the rest was the verse which his own fate was soon to illustrate, —

'The paths of glory lead but to the grave.'

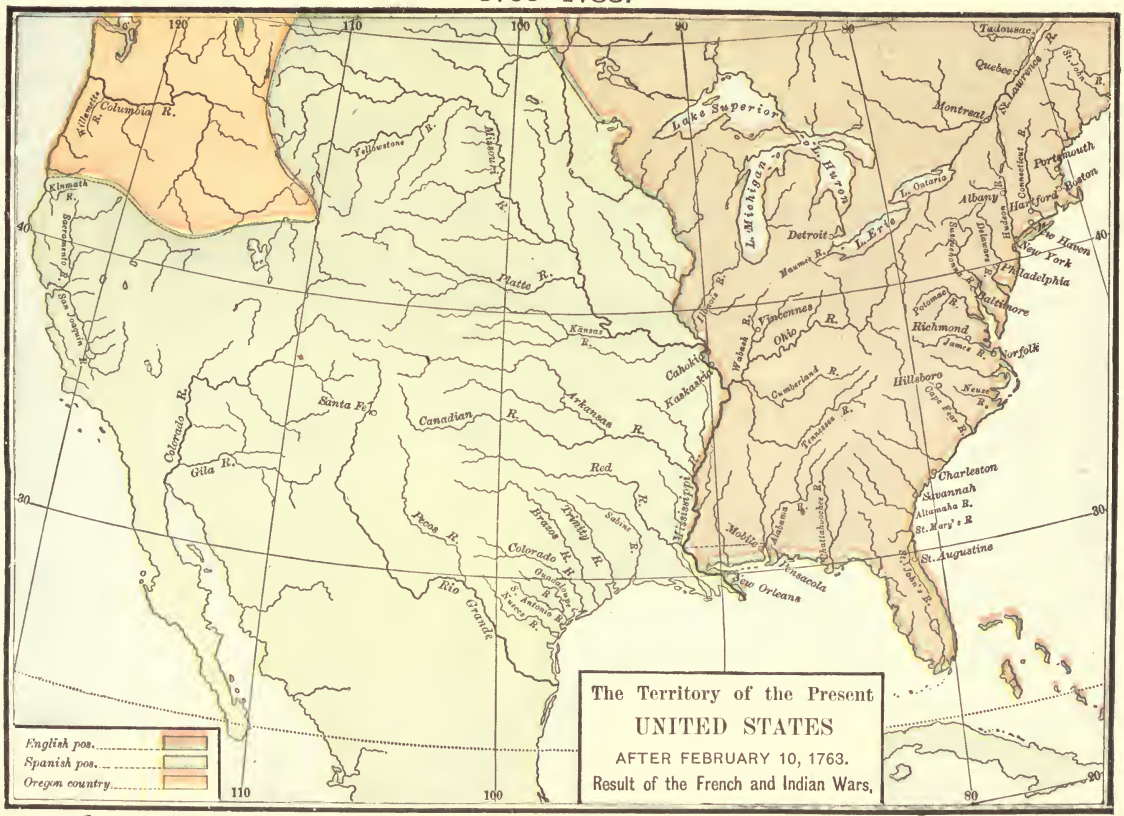
"'Gentlemen,' he said, as his recital ended, 'I would rather have written those lines than take Quebec.' None were there to tell him that the hero is greater than the poet.

"The dead stillness was suddenly broken by the sharp *Qui vive!* of a French sentry, invisible in the thick gloom. '*France!*' answered a Highland officer of Fraser's regiment from one of the boats of the light infantry. He had served in Holland, and spoke French fluently.

"'*A quel régiment?*'

"'*De la Reine*,' replied the Highlander. The sentry was satisfied, and did not ask for the password."

1763—1783.

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# CHAPTER XXII.

## TREATY OF 1763.

**158. The War ended.** — The fall of Quebec practically determined the result of the war. The next year the French made an attempt to recapture the city, but the timely arrival of a large force from England prevented the success of this undertaking. Soon after, Montreal and all Canada submitted to British domination. The treaty of peace, however, was delayed until **1763**.

**159. A New Map of North America.** — This treaty made great changes in the political map of North America. Up to this time Spain had held Florida, Mexico, and Central America. The entire valley of the Mississippi from the Alleghanies to the Rocky Mountains, and the entire valley of the St. Lawrence, including all now known as British America, belonged to France. Previous to this time the British colonies comprised only a narrow strip between the Atlantic and the Alleghany Mountains extending from Maine to Georgia.

**160. France shut out from North America.** — By this treaty the occupancy of almost the whole continent was changed. Spain ceded Florida to Great Britain; France gave up New Orleans and the province of Louisiana to Spain. This province included all that territory which lies between the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains. France ceded to Great Britain all Canada, and the French power was thus swept from the continent. Only two small islands near Newfoundland were retained by France as fishing stations. This change practically extended the English colonies westward to the Mississippi River, and the British flag floated over the whole country from Florida to the Arctic Ocean.

**161. England overshot the Mark.** — This was a proud moment for England, but she had gone too far: her success was too great; her pride must have a downfall. The French statesman, Vergennes, was then ambassador from France to Constantinople. This sagacious and experienced diplomatist, on hearing the conditions of the treaty, said: "England will, ere long, repent of having removed the

only check that could keep her colonies in awe. They stand no longer in need of her protection; she will call on them to contribute towards supporting the burdens they have helped to bring on her; and they will answer by striking off all dependence." Yet even Vergennes could not foresee that but thirteen years would elapse before the "Declaration of Independence" would be issued.

**162. Direct Effects upon the Colonies.** — The war had been an expensive one. It had cost the colonies more than $15,000,000. Only one-third of this sum was refunded to them by the British government. The Americans had lost thirty thousand men. The different colonies had suffered untold miseries from Indian barbarities. The men of Virginia and Massachusetts, of the Carolinas and New York, had fought shoulder to shoulder, and sectional jealousies were diminishing. Americans had learned to think and act for themselves, and dependence upon the mother country was thereby weakened. They had acquired a taste for liberty; they had learned to maintain their own rights. Their taxes, which were heavy, were paid without a murmur because levied by themselves. Above all, the French power, which they all had reason to fear, had been swept away; and the Spanish power was confined beyond the Mississippi. Moreover, the Americans had learned the art of war; and in all these various ways the English colonies, unknown to themselves, were being rapidly prepared for that independence which they neither desired nor expected, but which was shortly to come.

## CHRONOLOGY.

**1610.** France — Reign of Louis XIII.
**1637.** New England — Pequot War.
**1643.** France — Reign of Louis XIV.
**1673.** Great Lakes — Explored by Marquette and Joliet.
**1675.** New England — King Philip's War begun.
**1682.** Mississippi River — Explored by La Salle.
**1685.** England — Reign of James II.
**1689.** England — Reign of William and Mary.
King William's War begun.
**1690.** New York — Schenectady burned by the Indians and French.
Acadia — Capture of Port Royal.

**1697.** King William's War ended by Peace of Ryswick.
**1700.** Spain — Reign of Philip V.
**1702.** England — Reign of Anne.
Queen Anne's War begun.
**1710.** Acadia — Second capture of Port Royal.
**1713.** Queen Anne's War ended by Treaty of Utrecht.
**1714.** England — Reign of George I.
**1715.** France — Reign of Louis XV.
**1727.** England — Reign of George II.
**1739.** Georgia — Spanish War begun.
**1744.** King George's War begun.
**1745.** Louisburg — Captured by the English, June 17.
**1746.** Spain — Reign of Ferdinand VI.
**1748.** King George's War ended by Treaty of Aix la Chapelle.
**1749.** Ohio Company formed.
**1753.** Washington — Sent out to warn away the French.
**1754.** Albany — Congress meets, June 19.
Fort Necessity — Surrendered by Washington, July 4.
**1755.** Braddock — Defeated by the French, July 9.
Acadians — Expulsion by the English.
Lake George — French victory, September 8.
**1756.** French and Indian War formally declared.
Oswego — French victory, August 14.
**1757.** William Pitt — Becomes head of the English Government.
Fort William Henry — French victory, August 9.
**1758.** Ticonderoga — French victory, July 8.
Louisburg — Captured by the English, July 27.
Pittsburg — Captured by the English, November 25.
**1759.** Spain — Reign of Charles III.
Niagara — Captured by the English, July 25.
Ticonderoga — Captured by the English, July 26.
Plains of Abraham — English victory, September 13.
Quebec — Captured by the English, September 18.
**1760.** England — Reign of George III.
Canada — Conquered by the English.
**1762.** Spain — Joins France in the War.
Havana — Captured by the English, August.
**1763.** Pontiac's War begun.
French and Indian War ended by Treaty of Paris, February 10.

Wampum

# Blackboard Analysis.

- **COLONIAL LIFE**
  - **The Settlers . . . .**
    - Geography.
    - Population.
    - Nationality.
    - Character of the Settlements.
    - Classes.
    - Servants.
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    - Church of England.
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    - Charter Colonies.
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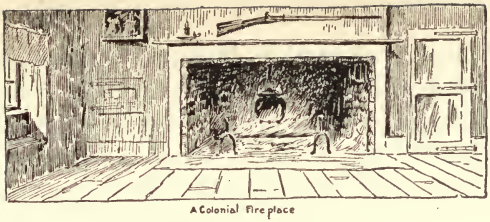
    - Dress.
    - Houses.
    - Furniture.
    - Food.
    - Implements.
    - Amusements.
    - New England Sunday.
    - Travel.



A Colonial fireplace

# SECTION IV.

## COLONIAL LIFE.

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## CHAPTER XXIII.

### THE SETTLERS.

**163. Geography.** — The geographical features of a country have much to do with forming the character of its inhabitants. The shores of New England were dangerous and uninviting, yet the good harbors, furnishing safe anchorage, attracted hardy fishermen and brave sailors. The shores of the Southern colonies were sandy and lacking in harbors, but the long slow rivers and the fertile banks aided in developing the great plantations. The whole country was covered with dense forests, and, especially in the north, much labor was needed to prepare the land for cultivation. The long Appalachian range, running parallel with the shore, left a strip of land the whole length of the coast about a hundred miles wide. In certain respects no other shore in the world, it is said, furnishes so favorable an opportunity for colonization. The broad rivers of the Middle and Southern colonies provided the best means of travel, while the steep and rapid rivers of New England furnished water-power and helped to establish her manufactories. Climate and land aided in developing the hardy and energetic dwellers in New England, as well as the more delicate and quiet inhabitants of the Carolinas.

**164. Population.** — The different colonies varied greatly in the rapidity of their growth. Virginia was the first to be settled, and therefore had to bear the hardships of pioneer life. Its population

was nearly sixty thousand at the close of the seventeenth century; during the next seventy-five years the growth was more rapid, and at the beginning of the Revolution there were perhaps half a million inhabitants in the colony. Massachusetts, settled thirteen years later, at first grew more rapidly than Virginia, and in 1700 had about seventy thousand people. Massachusetts did not keep pace with Virginia during the eighteenth century, partly owing to her small number of slaves; in 1775 she had a population of about three hundred thousand. Pennsylvania, another of the three most important colonies, had in 1775 a population midway between Virginia and Massachusetts. The settlers in the other colonies were less numerous, Maryland, Connecticut, New York, and the two Carolinas having a population averaging each about two hundred thousand, while New Jersey, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Georgia, and Delaware had each less than one hundred thousand people.

**165. Nationality.** — The thirteen English colonies were composed to a very great extent, of course, of emigrants from England; but other European nations sent many of their sons and daughters to the shores of America, and their influence has been strongly felt in all the settlements. The four colonies of New England had among their numbers very few settlers of other nationalities, and the only foreign influence of importance that they felt was that of the Dutch. In the Southern colonies the English race was dominant, especially in Virginia and Maryland. In the Carolinas there was a large number of French Huguenots, who proved to be a valuable addition to the population. There were also many hardy Germans, a few thrifty Swiss, and some industrious Scotch-Irish. The population of the Middle colonies did not possess so strong an English predominance. The Dutch were the earliest settlers here, and they continued to be numerically strong in these colonies, while in New York they made the majority of all the white settlers, even up to the Revolution. In New Jersey and Delaware there were many representatives of various European nations; while in Pennsylvania the German farmers and the Scotch-Irish Presbyterians outnumbered the Englishmen. The influence of these nationalities was for the most part good, and the English settlers were much aided in all their struggles for liberty by their neighbors and fellow-colonists.

**166. Character of the Settlements.** — The three divisions of the colonies were very unlike in the character of the settlements. In New England the farms were small, and the constant dread of the Indians caused the people to come together in villages. In many cases whole towns were formed at once, and sometimes nearly the whole population of one of these towns moved from one place to another. In the South there were very few towns or villages. Each planter would have access to a river, and thus obtain an easy method of travel, while often separated from his nearest neighbor by miles of

A New England Colonial House.

dense woods. The Middle colonies occupied a halfway ground, having more villages than the colonies to the south, and also larger farms than their eastern neighbors. Jamestown and Williamsburg, the capitals of Virginia, were but small villages; St. Mary's and Annapolis hardly larger; while Charleston, the capital of South Carolina, was the only important town in the South. New York, Philadelphia, and Albany were the leading towns of the Middle colonies, while other towns were not more than villages. The towns were

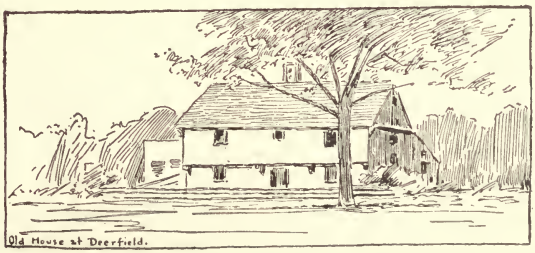
the leading feature of New England civilization, many of them being of considerable historical interest. Salem, Portsmouth, and New Haven were important commercial ports. Providence and Newport controlled Rhode Island; while Philadelphia and Boston were not only the largest towns among the colonies, but were also by far the most influential.

**167. Classes.** — All the colonists had come from countries where there were various classes of society, and all brought with them a belief in rank and aristocracy, modified by the conditions of each colony. The Southern colonists were very like their English cousins, and the gentry consisted of the great planters who owned large tracts of land and lived at leisure, considering it a disgrace to labor. In New York were the Dutch land-owners, who lived well upon their income, possessing vast estates, which they rented to tenant farmers. In the other Middle colonies a similar distinction was granted to the owners of great farms, but the class was not so important. In New England there was a careful recognition of the different classes, though all the people found it necessary to work. The members of the learned professions were the upper class among the Puritans, and they held their position simply by reason of public opinion. The mass of New England's population was of the English middle class, and formed the strength of these colonies in all times of danger. In the Southern colonies the middle class was composed

An old Dutch House, Albany, N. Y.

of rough and illiterate men, who, because of close contact with slavery, considered it beneath them to work. In South Carolina there was no middle class, the lines being sharply drawn between planters and servants.

**168. Servants.** — The highest class of servants in the colonies was the tenants, who paid rent to the land-owner, and also owed him certain obedience and service. Lower than the tenants were the bond-servants, who were to be found in great numbers in Virginia and Pennsylvania. Some of these were boys and girls who were "bound out" until of age; while many others were men and women who bound themselves out for a term of years to pay their passage across the water. These could be bought and sold, and were, during their "time," little better than slaves. Many persons convicted of crime were sold in the colonies for a term of years, to be "convict-servants." Most of the servants through all the colonies were negro slaves. The first to be brought to this country came in 1619, and in 1775 there were nearly half a million negroes. In the Northern colonies, where the climate was colder, the white population were willing to work, and negroes were not in so great demand. They were used in New England chiefly as house-servants, while in the Middle colonies they were employed somewhat among the wheat-fields. The heat of the Southern summer was too severe for the white settlers, and negroes were demanded in large numbers to work the great plantations of tobacco, rice, and indigo. Thus the number of slaves south of Pennsylvania was many times that of those in the North. The influence of slavery has always proved harmful, creating a prejudice against labor, and finally the Southern colonies found it almost impossible to free themselves from its chains.



Old House at Deerfield.

# CHAPTER XXIV.

## RESOURCES.

**169. Plantations.** — The first settlers of Virginia came for the purpose of finding gold, or the Northwest Passage, or to trade with the Indians. Little was thought of agriculture until after the "starving time," and even then, for a time, there was but little real farming, as the immigrants were for the most part unused to that form of labor. In time the poorer landowners were compelled to sell to the more wealthy, and soon a large portion of the Southern Colonies was owned by comparatively few men. These planters patterned closely after the English country gentlemen of their day. On the plantations would be found the great house, the negro quarters, the barns and stables, and the shops, in which were rudely manufactured many of the articles needed on the place. In fact, each plantation became a community by itself. Throughout all the Southern colonies tobacco was the principal crop, but in the Carolinas rice and indigo came to be staple articles. Lumber was shipped from the Carolinas, and cattle were raised to a considerable extent. Other farm produce, as a rule, was grown on each plantation, but only as much as was necessary for the support of the community.

A Southern Mansion.

**170. Small Farms.** — Proceeding northward, one would find the plantations growing smaller and more numerous. The great wheat

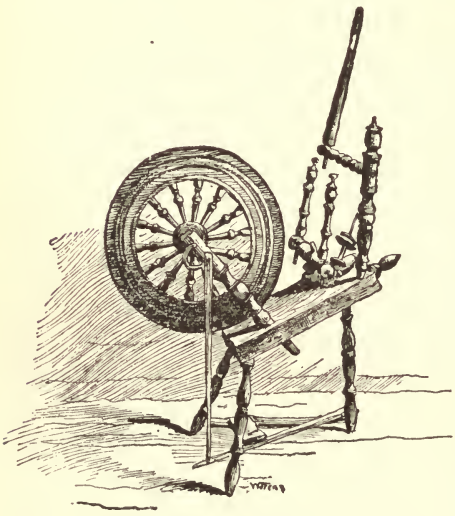
region was in the Middle colonies, and many of the farms here were large and prosperous. There was a greater variety of farm produce than south of the Potomac, and many cattle were raised in New Jersey. In New England an entire change of things was to be found. Here there were no large farms, no tenants; each farm was managed by its owner. The soil was not rich; rocks and stones abounded; it was impossible to raise large crops of any staple. Each farm raised enough of various crops to feed the family; and all necessities, for the most part, were made on the place. The larger portion of the population of New England lived in towns and villages, and these clusters of houses were separated by long distances. In no respect was the difference between the Eastern and Southern colonies more pronounced than in the communities, — the towns, in which almost every house was owned by the occupant himself, and the plantations, where all was the property of the great planter.

**171. Commerce.** — The scattered condition of the colonies along the coast built up a large coasting trade. Their dependency upon the mother country was productive of much commerce. Vessels were built in all the colonies, though shipbuilding was confined principally to New England, — Maine furnishing the most timber for this purpose. The great fisheries off the New England coast developed a race of hardy sailors, and these did most of the carrying trade. Tobacco, rice, indigo, beef, cotton, tar, and turpentine were exported from the Southern colonies, while all kinds of manufactures were brought back from England. The exports of grain and flour from the port of New York did not equal the imports into the Middle colonies. New England raised little that could be used in foreign trade, but rather sought to build and man the vessels which should engage in commerce. Lumber and furs formed a considerable part of the exports from all the colonies, and sugar and molasses of the imports. Pirates did much injury to the commerce of the colonies, and for a long time were able to ward off all efforts to drive them from American waters.

**172. Navigation Acts.** — A great blow was dealt to colonial commerce by the Navigation Acts (¶ 202), the first of which was passed in 1651 by Cromwell and his Parliament. This provided that England's products must be carried to the colonies in English or colonial vessels. This act was passed for the purpose simply of aiding English commerce and as a direct blow to the Dutch carrying trade. In 1663

other laws were passed by the Parliament of Charles II., ordering that all goods imported into any colony must come from some English port. This bore heavily on the colonists, especially on the commerce-loving New Englanders, and later acts proved even more burdensome. As the colonists considered these laws unjust, it was not strange that many of the merchants attempted to evade them, and smuggling grew to be common in various New England ports. The laws were poorly enforced, as the revenue officers often either took bribes to overlook the illicit trade, or sometimes even engaged in it themselves. A more rigid enforcement proved, in later years, one of the most important causes that brought about the Revolution.

**173. Manufactures.** — In a new country, farming, shipping, and hunting are usually the first occupations. It has always proved true that manufactures only become of importance as the settlements grow older. Thus the people of the colonies devoted but little time to developing those industries which, since the Revolution, have made the United States the great manufacturing nation of the world. In the South there were no manufactures whatever, everything that was needed being imported from England. In the Middle colonies there were small manufactures, as paper and glass, and in 1720 an iron furnace was started in Pennsylvania. New England imported fewer manufactured goods than the other colonies, needing only the most important ones. "There being abundant water-power, small saw and grist mills were numerous; there were many tanneries and distilleries; the Scotch-Irish made linens and coarse woollens." Homespun goods were made in every farmhouse, the spinning-wheels being run by every maiden and housewife. The large manufactories of the New England of to-day sprang naturally from the smaller industries of colonial times.



A Flax-Wheel.

# CHAPTER XXV.

## EDUCATION.

**174. Schools.** — One of the most important characteristics of the Puritans of New England was their belief in the necessity of education. Hardly had they founded their churches and built their houses before they established a school. In 1647 the General Court of the Colony of Massachusetts Bay passed an act requiring every town to establish a free school, and, if there were one hundred families in the town, a grammar school. Common schools were to be found throughout all the New England colonies at an early date, and in every colony but Rhode Island there was an attempt at requiring all the children to attend school. The Dutch in New Netherland rivalled the Puritans in their establishment of free schools, but these schools began to decay when the colony became English. Throughout the Middle colonies there were many successful private schools, though but little public money was used in educating the people. In the South, opportunities for obtaining an education were very few. There were no free schools, and but very few schools of any kind. The planters either placed their children under tutors at home, or sent them to England to be educated.

**175. Colleges.** — The elementary schools taught the boys to "read, write, and cipher;" the girls received even less education. The grammar schools were not like those of to-day; the word "grammar" meant Latin grammar, and these schools were academies, fitting boys only for college. The first college was founded in **1636**, the General Court of Massachusetts appropriating £400 for the purpose. In 1638 the college received the name of Harvard College, in honor of John Harvard, who gave to it his library and half his estate. In **1693** a charter was obtained from the king and queen, which established William and Mary College in Virginia, the second in the colonies. Yale College was founded at Saybrook, Connecticut, in **1700**, and before the French and Indian War three others were started which have since become Columbia, Princeton, and the University of Pennsylvania.

**176. Printing.** — Daily newspapers and free public libraries were unknown in the colonies. The first printing-press was set up at Cambridge, in connection with Harvard College, in 1639, and from this time aided the college in moulding New England. The first newspaper was the Boston "News Letter," which was published in 1704. The title of this paper indicates its character, as its columns were filled, for the most part, with extracts from private letters received by the inhabitants of Boston. At the beginning of the Revolution there were thirty-seven newspapers in all the colonies. Few persons were rich enough to afford a library, and the libraries that did exist would seem small today. The colonists had a hard struggle to support themselves, and were not able to devote much time to reading. The people of New England acquired their education fully as much from the sermons to which they listened every Sunday, and from the town meetings, as from schools or books.

The Old South Church, Boston, Mass.

**177. Professions.**—In some of the Southern colonies it might be said that there were no professions. In none of them were there many lawyers or skilled physicians, while the ministers were for the most part of but moderate ability. In the Middle colonies the same condition of things existed as to the practice of medicine. The judges and lawyers were usually of high standing, while the clergy were earnest, able men. Much of New England's leadership among the colonies was due to the eminent ministers who were popular leaders and men of rare ability. The

lawyers and statesmen were of less importance, though as time went on they came more and more into prominence. The doctors were much esteemed by the people, though many of them were not of very high ability. Literature, fine arts, and the sciences were unable to make much headway, and until the middle of the eighteenth century there were almost no authors, painters, or scientists.

**178. Town Meetings.** — The most peculiar feature of the New England colonies, making them unlike any of the others, was their town government, with its town meeting. The people of a New England town governed themselves, making their own laws. They met in town meeting at least once a year, and all the men of the town might be present, vote, and take part in the discussions. In fact, there was, at one time, a fine if any citizen was not present. These meetings were often held in the churches, as few halls and no theatres then existed. In several towns the meetings were very large, and in Boston they were usually held in Faneuil Hall or the Old South Church. All matters relating to the town were discussed, appropriations of money were made, and the officers were elected. Here was a pure democracy, all men's votes being of equal importance, and each being privileged to speak his mind on any subject. The town meeting was a great educator of the people, and its influence has been felt even to the present day.

## CHAPTER XXVI.

### RELIGION.

**179. Church of England.** — The first settlers in Virginia brought with them the Church of England, or the Episcopal Church, as it is called in America to-day. The Royal Instructions given to the London Company made it the Established Church of the colony. Taxes were levied in most of the Southern colonies for the support of the church. Those colonists who had other forms of belief were persecuted, and, especially after the Restoration, harsh measures

prevailed. In the Carolinas less persecution took place, and in South Carolina the Dissenters were in the majority. The Church of England was established in New York and New Jersey, but in the latter there was no religious persecution. In these colonies there were many religious sects, the Dutch Reformed, the Dutch Lutheran, and the Presbyterian being the leading denominations. The Episcopal service was not permitted in New England until the time of Andros (¶ 190), and during the eighteenth century this church made few gains among the Puritans of Massachusetts and Connecticut.

Puritans going to Church.

**180. The Puritans.** — The early settlers of New England fled from religious persecution in England to establish Puritan churches. At first, town and church in Massachusetts were identical, and for many years only members of Puritan churches were allowed to vote. It was natural that there should be a very marked religious feeling, and that religious matters should predominate throughout the colony. The Puritans were very intolerant, not allowing any other form of worship, though this feeling grew weaker as time went on. They were especially opposed to the introduction of the Episcopal ritual, as they feared that England might force that church service upon them. The Puritans, or Congregationalists, formed a large majority of the population of

New England, even up to the Revolution, though they were not numerous in the other colonies. At times they obtained some power in South Carolina and Maryland, and were quite prominent in New Jersey, but their stronghold was in the New England colonies.

**181. Roger Williams.** — Endicott had scarcely become settled at Salem (¶ 58) when he sent back to England two brothers by the name of Browne, because they objected to the omission of the Prayer-book from the service of the Salem church. Mrs. Anne Hutchinson was driven from Massachusetts Bay because the Puritans deemed the doctrines which she preached dangerous (¶ 67). The most noted example of the persecution of a single individual was that of Roger Williams (¶ 66). He went to Salem in 1631, and, after preaching a short time in the First Church, was chosen pastor at Plymouth. Returning to Salem in 1634, he soon incurred the enmity of the leaders of the colony on account of the radical views which he preached from the Salem pulpit. He believed in separating church and state and in allowing perfect religious liberty. He denied the right of the colonists to the land, since they had not purchased it from the Indians. Through his influence Endicott cut the cross from the royal ensign, thinking it a symbol of Roman Catholicism. He became feared both for religious and political reasons, and in January, 1636, orders were issued that he be carried back to England. Fleeing into the wilderness, he spent many weeks among the Indians before he landed at Providence and founded the colony of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations.

**182. The Quakers.** — The peculiar views of the Friends, popularly called Quakers, were sufficient to set the Puritans against them. But there were a few who called themselves Friends who went to such extremes that they brought against the whole denomination a prejudice which the mass of the Quakers did not deserve. Massachusetts took the lead in persecuting these people, and their cruel treatment has always been a blot upon her fair fame. The first to arrive were two women from Barbadoes who were put in prison, and their books publicly burned. They were sent back, but immediately eight more arrived from England. The four colonies belonging to the New England Union (¶ 189) passed laws banishing all Quakers and threatening severe punishment if any should return. The poor

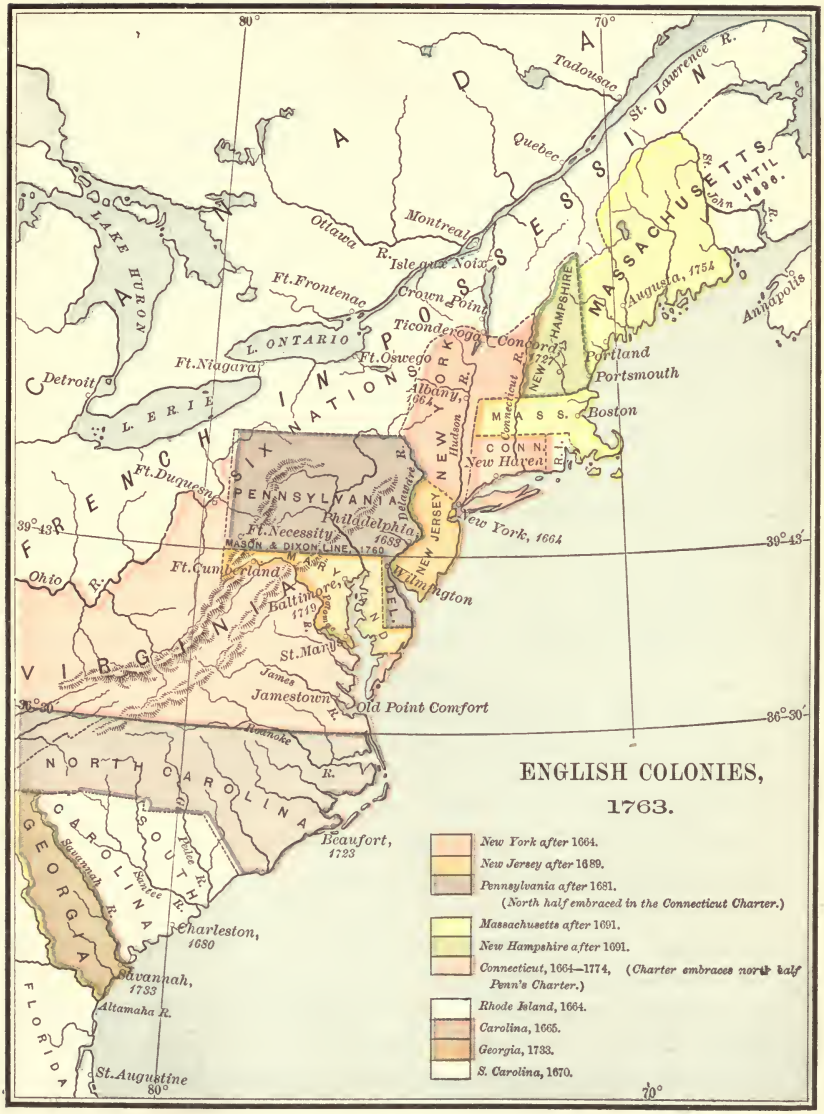
Quakers, earnest in their faith, persisted in returning, and were flogged, imprisoned, had their ears cut off, and their tongues burned with a hot iron. At last Massachusetts passed a law that returning Quakers should be put to death, and three persons were hanged on Boston Common. In 1660 the death penalty was repealed, and persecution grew less and less. Times had changed when in 1789 a Quaker, chairman of the board of selectmen, welcomed President Washington to Salem.

**183. Religious Freedom.** — While there was a great difference among the colonies in regard to religious persecution, in but three could it be said that religious toleration existed. Roger Williams fled from the persecution of the Puritans to found a colony wherein every person was allowed perfect religious freedom. The Baptists became the most numerous sect in Rhode Island, but they had no special political power. In Penn's Frame of Government, it was enacted that there should be religious liberty in Pennsylvania, and this colony, as well as Rhode Island, came to be an asylum for those persecuted for religion's sake. The only Roman Catholic colony was Maryland, and here there was no persecution as long as the Catholics were in power. When William and Mary came to the throne in 1688, the Church of England was established, and religious freedom in Maryland came to an end.

**184. Superstition.** — Throughout all ages and in all countries belief in some form of evil spirits has accompanied belief in God. An almost universal fear of witches and witchcraft was associated even with the Christian faith. Throughout all European nations, so-called witches were executed; and in England in one year one hundred and twenty were put to death on charges of witchcraft. Among the colonies, here and there, persons were accused of being in league with the Devil, and punishment was inflicted upon a few. In 1692 an "epidemic of superstitious fear" occurred in Massachusetts, beginning in Salem Village, or what is now called Danvers. Children witnessed against many persons throughout the county, and before the craze was over twenty persons unjustly lost their lives. The next year, the people began to recover their senses, and in May, **1693**, the jail doors were opened and all the prisoners accused of witchcraft were set free. This jail delivery marked the beginning of a better day.

OF THE
UNIVERSITY
OF
CALIFORNIA

# 1763.

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# CHAPTER XXVII.

## GOVERNMENT.

**185. Charter Colonies.** — There were three forms of government among the colonies, — charter, proprietary, and royal. The three charter colonies were Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut. Charles I. in 1629 granted a charter to the Massachusetts Bay Company which they brought over with them the next year. In 1644 the same king gave a charter to the colony of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, and in 1665 New Haven and Connecticut were united by a charter granted to the colony of Connecticut. In these three colonies the people were allowed to govern themselves, provided merely that they made no laws contrary to those of England. They chose the members of both branches of the legislature and the governor as well. Massachusetts lost its first charter in 1684, and the second, granted in 1691, directed that the governor should be appointed by the king. Rhode Island and Connecticut retained their charters and lived under them until long after the Revolution, Connecticut adopting a State constitution in 1818, and Rhode Island in 1842 (¶ 486).

**186. Proprietary and Royal Colonies.** — Each of the other ten colonies was originally given to some company or proprietor, though at the beginning of the Revolution but three were proprietary. Maryland was granted to Lord Baltimore in 1632; and Pennsylvania and Delaware came into the hands of William Penn in 1681 and 1682. In these colonies the proprietors appointed the governors and furnished charters to the people in accordance with which they were allowed to elect one branch of the legislature. The other colonies, though originally proprietary, became royal, one at a time, when the proprietors surrendered their rights to the king; in one of these the proprietor, the Duke of York, became King James II. In these colonies there were no charters, and the governors were appointed by the king. As he paid little attention to them, the people gradually began to elect the members of the legislature, as in the other colonies.

**187. Colonial Government.**— The colonies patterned after England in their form of government: the governor corresponded to the king; the two branches of the legislature to the House of Lords and the House of Commons. In Pennsylvania there was but one house, and in some of the colonies the Governor's Council formed the higher branch. The governor was the executive officer, — that is, had the duty of enforcing the laws, — while the legislature made the statutes necessary for the government of the colony. The legislatures of the different colonies went by different names, as the General Court of Massachusetts and the General Assembly of Rhode Island; the lower house was sometimes the House of Burgesses, as in Virginia, the Assembly, as in New York, or more commonly the House of Representatives: by whatever name they were called, they had much the same power, and in every colony they did much to encourage home government and to instil a love of liberty and independence.

**188. Laws.** — Some of the laws passed in the colonies were severe, though no worse than in other countries at that time. Many crimes were punishable by death; severe penalties were inflicted for lying and swearing; in New England laws were enacted for the rigid keeping of the Sabbath day. For smaller offences, as slander, scolding, etc., the ducking-stool, the pillory, and the stocks were in common use. The private lives of the people were carefully ordered, and liberty of conscience was often violated.

**189. The New England Union.** — Prior to the French and Indian War only one attempt was made to unite any of the colonies. In 1643 the four colonies of Massachusetts Bay, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven, sent representatives to Boston, who formed "The United Colonies of New England." The purpose of this Union can be best shown in the words of its constitution. It was to be "a firm and perpetual league of friendship and amity for offence and defence, mutual advice and succor upon all just occasions, both for preserving and propagating the truth and liberties of the gospel, and for their own mutual safety and welfare." The Union was formed soon after the Pequot War (¶ 112), when the people were much afraid of the Indians, and at a time when the Dutch were troublesome in Connecticut, and the king and the Puritans were at war in England. Rhode Island was not admitted

because Massachusetts Bay, Plymouth, and Connecticut each claimed a portion of her territory, while the remote position of New Hampshire left her out also. The only government of the Union consisted in a board of commissioners, two from each colony, whose duty it was to be a committee of public safety, and to merely recommend measures to the colonies. After the Restoration in 1660 the Union began to grow weaker, and, though meetings were held by the commissioners until 1684, had little importance except during King Philip's War (¶ 115).

**190. Andros.** — Charles II., after the Restoration, was more than willing to punish the Puritans, who had beheaded his father and wrested the throne from himself. He was a firm believer in the "divine right of kings," and was opposed to the rule of the people, and especially the democratic government of the charter colonies. In 1684, after a long struggle with Massachusetts Bay, he declared the charter to be "null and void," and the colony to be a royal possession. James II. succeeded his brother in 1685, and sent over Sir Edmund Andros the next year, to be governor of Massachusetts Bay, Plymouth, New Hampshire, and Maine. He was granted almost royal authority, and soon after the rest of New England was put under his government. Although this was contrary to the charters of Connecticut and Rhode Island, it did not deter the king. In 1688 Andros was made governor of New York and New Jersey, thus ruling from Acadia to Delaware.

The "Charter Oak," Hartford, Conn.

**191. The Charters.** — The power granted to Andros was very great, and his method of government was despotic. Rhode Island was compelled to give up her charter, and Andros went to Hartford to obtain the charter of Connecticut. The story runs that while the magistrates were discussing the matter with the governor, the lights were put out; and when they were relighted, the charter could not be found. It had been taken from the table and hidden in an oak-

tree, which has received the title of the "Charter Oak." Andros' rule was short, for, in the spring of **1689**, news reached Boston of the landing of the Prince of Orange, and the flight of King James. The governor was seized by the people of Boston and sent back to England. In **1691** a new charter was granted to Massachusetts, annexing Plymouth and Maine, and forever separating New Hampshire, making it a royal colony. The charters of Connecticut and Rhode Island were returned, and matters went on as before.

## CHAPTER XXVIII.

### LIFE.

**192. Dress.** — The people of the colonies, for the most part, were simple in habits and plain in dress. On ordinary occasions they

Puritan Youth and Maiden.

wore sober-colored garments, only decking themselves in finery on the Sabbath or on holidays. The men wore knee-breeches, long stockings, buckled shoes, short cloaks, and "steeple-crowned" hats.

The working classes had clothes made of leather, deer-skin, or coarse canvas only, while the better clothing was homespun, except the small amount of imported cloth which the wealthy could afford. The younger men delighted in gaudy belts, with buckles and buttons of silver or polished brass. Often they used much lace and long ruffs upon their sleeves. The hair was worn long, powdered, and done up in a queue.

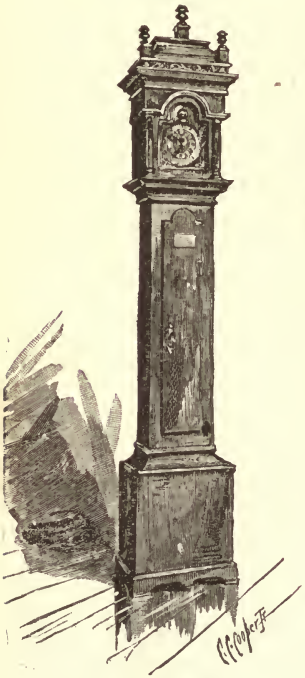
The women ordinarily dressed in plain homespun goods, and only on special occasions did they appear in silks and laces. The Dutch matrons were more gayly dressed than the New England women, with short bright dresses, many-colored stockings of their own knitting, and high-heeled shoes. The fashions of the seventeenth century differed greatly from those of the nineteenth, but as far as they could our ancestors kept up to the styles of the day.

**193. Houses.** — The first dwellings of the colonists, both north and south, were much alike. They were usually made of logs, though in a few cases the people lived in holes or caves. At first round logs were used, then they were squared or hewed, and finally cut into beams. One-story houses with steep roofs, covered with thatch, was the rule. As the people grew more prosperous, better houses were built.

The Southern planters had large mansions, "baronial halls," built of imported brick, with mahogany staircases and mantels. In Philadelphia and New York, the better residences were of brick or stone. The Dutch houses had gable-ends facing the street, and many doors and windows. The wood and brass work was always kept highly polished. In New England the houses were of wood or home-made brick, often two stories high in front and one in the rear. They usually faced the south, so that the time of day could readily be told from the sun. Instead of glass, oiled paper was at first used to admit the light. In all the houses were open fireplaces, large enough for four-foot logs, and often containing long settles on which the members of the family could sit. Friction matches were unknown, and fire was kept through the night with jealous care, the coals covered over thick with ashes. Wood was very plentiful, and was burned without stint.

**194. Furniture.** — The plain and simple houses of the colonists contained plain and simple furniture. Tables and benches were

roughly made, and stools were used in place of chairs. The beds were filled with mistletoe or with the feathers of wild birds. The dishes were for the most part of wood, and none of the people had forks. The dresser had its long rows of pewter, or, in the wealthy families, of silver and china. Only the rich planters and the Dutch "patroons" could afford gold and silver plate. These had also imported furniture, mahogany bedsteads, and tables with claw-footed legs. There were no carpets; but most of the floors were covered with sand. There were no stoves; heat was furnished by wood fires, over which most of the cooking was done.

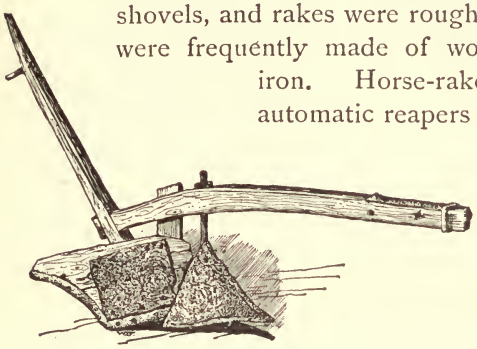


Franklin's Clock.
(Now in Philadelphia Library.)

**195. Food.** — Meat was roasted by being placed over the fire upon a spit or long iron rod, which was frequently turned; fish were cooked directly upon the coals. Meat and vegetables were boiled in pots or kettles hung in the flames on a crane, or in skillets placed in front of the fire, under which live coals were put. Sometimes food was cooked by being placed in water in wooden vessels, into which hot stones had been laid. In later times large brick ovens were built; in these hot coals were put, and bread was baked after the ashes had been swept out.

The food, among the middle classes, was plain and spare. Very little fresh meat was to be had, except that obtained by hunters and anglers. The fare was mainly of vegetables with a little salt pork, corn meal and milk, and rye or Indian bread. Seldom did the common people have more than meal or porridge for breakfast, and mush for supper. Tea and coffee were little used, home-made cider and beer taking their place. More spirits were used than at the present day, and by all the people. Though wine, rum, and hard cider were common beverages, being largely of home manufacture, the evils resulting from their use were much less then than now.

**196. Implements.** — The tools of the colonists were as rude as their furniture. Iron was an expensive luxury, and but little of it could be used. Many of the farming implements were of home manufacture, and even the smiths were poor workmen. Hoes, shovels, and rakes were rough and bulky, and the ploughs were frequently made of wood, covered with plates of iron. Horse-rakes, mowing-machines, and automatic reapers had not been invented.



A Colonial Plough.

In warfare the implements were rude and inconvenient. At first iron helmets and breastplates were worn, and later the colonists lined their coats with cotton-wool as a protection against the arrows of the Indians. The first guns were match-locks, so called because a long slow-match was carried with which to light the powder. These guns were so heavy that it was necessary to carry forked sticks, on which they could be rested, in order to be fired. These nearly useless guns were succeeded by the flint-locks, in which the spark was made by flint striking steel.

**197. Amusements.** — Though the colonists were sober, hard-working people, they were also fond of certain amusements. In New England, holidays, such as Thanksgiving, election, and training days, were long anticipated and thoroughly enjoyed. Quilting and spinning bees, corn-huskings, and house-raisings were times of merriment as well as of labor. Weddings, and even funerals, were made times of feasting, which often continued for many days. Wrestling and shooting matches were common at holidays, and blind-man's-buff at parties. In the Middle and Southern colonies ruder sports were indulged in, as horse-racing, bull-baiting, and cock-fighting. Hunting and fishing were common in all the colonies, while the Dutch introduced the customs of coasting, skating, and sleighing.

**198. The New England Sunday.** — Religious matters occupied a large part of the thought of the Puritans of New England, and their Sunday very noticeably influenced their character. The day began with them at sunset on Saturday, and work was then laid

aside. No cooking was allowed on the Sabbath; all amusements and regular occupations were forbidden; and all was quiet and sober on that day. No travelling was permitted, except to and from the nearest church. They were called to service by a drum or bell, and for many years it was necessary for them to go armed.

The churches were not heated, and the women often carried foot-stoves. The men and women, young and old, had their separate places in the church, and constables took care of the boys. The sermons were long, and the sexton would often turn the hour-glass upon the desk twice during their delivery. Laws required the attendance of all the people, and tithing-men were appointed to investigate each case of absence. Long and tiresome as the day was, it was simply an expression of their understanding of the Bible doctrines.

**199. Travel.** — As in all new countries, the first travel was by water. Canoes were hollowed out of the trees, usually capable of carrying six persons. Small sailing-vessels, or shallops, were used in travelling along the coast. Later, packets ran between the larger towns, as, from New Haven and Albany to New York. Indian trails and bridle-paths were the first roads across the country, and people went on foot or horseback, the goods being carried on pack-horses. Few wheeled wagons were seen outside of the towns, and horseback was at all times the best mode of travelling. The roads were poor, especially outside of New England, and few streams were bridged except the smallest, and those only on the main roads. The journey from Boston to New York by stage required six days, and three more to Philadelphia. Taverns were found in nearly every town, and travellers were compelled to endure poor quarters and worse cooking.

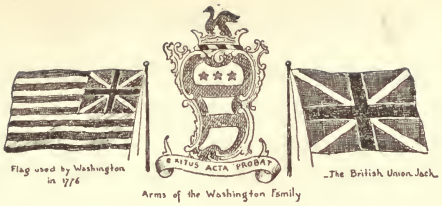
## CHRONOLOGY.

**1606.** Charter granted to London and Plymouth Companies, April 10.
**1609.** Virginia — Second charter to the London Company.
**1612.** Virginia — Third charter to the London Company.
**1619.** Virginia — First Legislative Assembly, July 30.
Virginia — First importation of negro slaves.
**1620.** New England — Charter granted to Council of Plymouth.

**1624.** Virginia — Charter annulled.
**1629.** Massachusetts Bay — Charter granted, March 4.
**1632.** Maryland — Charter granted.
**1635.** New England — Council of Plymouth resigns its charter.
**1636.** Massachusetts — Harvard University founded.
Massachusetts — Roger Williams banished.
**1638.** Massachusetts — Mrs. Hutchinson banished.
**1639.** Connecticut — Constitution adopted, January 14.
**1641.** New Hampshire — Joined to Massachusetts.
**1643.** New England Confederation formed, May.
**1647.** Massachusetts — Free School Act passed.
**1649.** England — Charles I. beheaded, January 30.
**1651.** England — First Navigation Act passed.
**1656.** Massachusetts — Arrival of the first Quakers.
**1659.** Massachusetts — Hanging of two Quakers.
**1660.** England — The Restoration.
**1662.** Connecticut — Charter granted, April 20.
**1663.** Rhode Island — Charter granted, July 8.
First Bible printed in the colonies.
Carolina — Granted by Charles II., March 24.
**1664.** New York — Granted to the Duke of York.
**1665.** New Jersey — Granted to Berkeley and Carteret.
Connecticut and New Haven united.
**1674.** New Jersey — Divided into East and West Jersey
**1679.** New Hampshire — Made royal province.
**1681.** Pennsylvania — Granted to William Penn, March 4.
**1682.** Delaware — Sold to William Penn.
**1684.** Massachusetts — Charter annulled, June 18.
**1686.** New England — Arrival of Andros, December 20.
**1687.** Connecticut — Andros demands the charter, October 31.
**1688.** England — Landing of the Prince of Orange, November 5.
**1689.** Massachusetts — Andros deposed, April 18.
**1691.** Massachusetts — Second charter granted.
Plymouth — United to Massachusetts.
New Hampshire — Made a royal province.
**1692.** Massachusetts — Witchcraft delusion.
**1693.** Virginia — William and Mary College chartered.
**1701.** Connecticut — Yale College chartered.
**1702.** New Jersey — Becomes a royal colony.
**1703.** Delaware — Becomes a separate colony.
**1704.** Massachusetts — "Boston News Letter" published.
**1729.** Carolinas — Become royal provinces, September.
**1732.** Georgia — Granted to Oglethorpe.
**1752.** Georgia — Charter surrendered to the king.

# Blackboard Analysis.

- CAUSES OF THE REVOLUTION
  - **Provocations**
    - Navigation Laws.
    - Taxation.
    - Stamp Act.
    - Quartering of Troops.
    - Tax on Tea.
    - Boston Port Bill.
    - Massachusetts Bill.
    - Transportation Bill.
    - Quebec Act.
  - **Resistance**
    - Smuggling.
    - Stamp Act Congress.
    - Boston Massacre.
    - The Gaspée.
    - Boston Tea Party.



Arms of the Washington Family

# Part II.

## FORMATION OF THE NATION

## 1763–1789.

## SECTION V.

### CONTROVERSY WITH ENGLAND. 1763–1775.

## CHAPTER XXIX.

### COMMERCE OF THE COLONIES.

**200. Population.** — The colonies were now about to enter upon a course which would lead them to resistance against the mother country, and finally to independence. There were four New England, four Middle, and five Southern colonies, with an entire population of not more than two millions. The various industries at the North and at the South were rapidly yielding an abundance of products, especially agricultural. The excess beyond the demand for home consumption was more and more seeking foreign markets.

**201. Exports and Imports.** — In 1763 the value of the colonial exports exceeded five million dollars, and the imports amounted to fully eight millions. Both exports and imports were rapidly increasing, notwithstanding the "Non-Importation Agreements" (¶ 215). The significance of this will be best appreciated by bearing in mind that the studied policy of the mother country was designed to keep

the colonies dependent upon her, especially for manufactures and trade. Manufactures in America were prohibited. Iron works were denounced as "common nuisances." It was insisted that America must not make even a nail for a horseshoe unless Parliament gave its permission. In the Carolinas the making of turpentine and tar was prohibited. The manufacture of hats in one colony, to be sold in another, was not allowed. Printing was discouraged to such an extent that to print an English Bible would have been an act of piracy.

**202. Navigation Laws.** — Great Britain passed, in 1764, what were termed "Navigation Laws." These laws extended the former Navigation Acts (¶ 172), making England a storehouse of Asiatic as well as of European supplies; diminished the drawbacks on foreign articles exported to America; placed imposts, especially on wines; established a revenue duty on foreign molasses, and increased the duty on sugar; made various regulations to sustain English manufactures, as well as to enforce more diligently the acts of trade; and absolutely prohibited all trade between the British provinces and St. Pierre and Miquelon. Of this act Bancroft says, it "had for the first time the title of 'granting duties in the colonies and plantations of America;' for the first time it was asserted in the preamble that it was 'just and necessary that a revenue should be raised there.'"

**Christopher Sower** (or, as it was then spelled, Saur), a German, who was born in 1693 and emigrated to America in 1724, was a printer and publisher in Germantown, Pa. He began the publication of books in 1738, and continued it till his death, twenty years later. In 1743 he published a German Bible after Luther's translation. This was the first Bible printed in America in a European language. The *first* Bible printed in America was in the Indian language, and was published in 1663, at Boston. This was the famous Indian Bible translated by Rev. John Eliot, "the apostle to the Indians." Sower's German Bible contained 1284 pages, quarto, and was sold unbound for twelve shillings, and bound in full leather with clasps for eighteen shillings. The unbound copies were strongly sewed and fastened with a leather strap and buckle. Bancroft says that "No copy of the Bible in English was ever printed in these colonies till the land had become free."

**203. England's Repressive Policy.** — These acts to restrain the colonial trade were now put in operation. Numerous customs-officers were appointed, who received orders to proceed rigorously. Naval officers were encouraged to prey upon American commerce with the West Indies and other parts; vessels were constantly searched; confiscation usually followed, and an appeal cost more than the value of the goods.

**204. The First Colonial Movement in Opposition.** — This state of things brought about the first movement in the struggle for union between the colonies. The Massachusetts Assembly, led by James Otis, protested against any attempt to create a standing army in America, to appoint officers who should not be responsible to the colonial assemblies, or to raise a revenue without the consent of these assemblies.

**205. Increase of Colonial Commerce.** — It surely is surprising that under all these adverse circumstances the foreign trade of the colonies should rapidly increase. On the New England coast, numerous shipyards produced vessels of various kinds and sizes, which were at once engaged in carrying on the commerce of the colonies, or were sold in foreign harbors. Large quantities of salt fish were carried to the various countries of Europe. Lumber, fish, and breadstuffs were sent to the West Indies to be exchanged for molasses, which, on its arrival, was often converted into New England rum.

**James Otis** was one of the foremost men in moulding the public sentiment of the colonies so as to bring about that condition of affairs which resulted in the Revolution and in independence. He was a man of great genius and ardent temper. He was impetuous and commanding as an orator, and as a lawyer stood at the head of his profession in Boston. He was born in 1725, and died in 1783. His public career began with his famous speech against the "Writs of Assistance," in 1761. From that time he was the leader of the popular party. He published "The Rights of the Colonies Vindicated," a masterpiece of argument. He wrote many articles for the "Gazette," denouncing in severe terms the calumnies of some of the customs-officers. For this he was personally attacked in 1769, and received a deep cut on his head which has sometimes been assigned as the cause of his subsequent insanity. He was a representative to the General Court in 1771, but subsequently, his mind having become seriously impaired, he took no active part in public affairs.

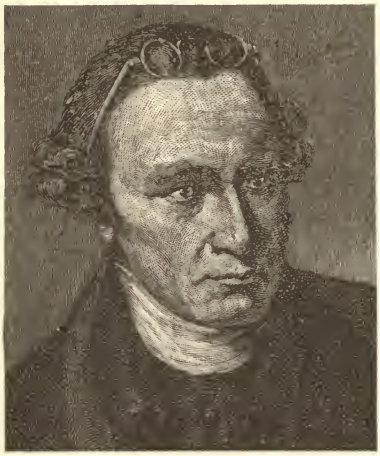
## CHAPTER XXX.

### TAXATION.

**206. Taxation.** — The causes of the American revolution all lead back to, and cluster around, the one word "taxation." On this subject there was an English theory and an American theory. The imperial Parliament claimed the right to levy taxes not only in Great Britain, but in her colonies as well; the American theory denied its right of taxation in the colonies.

**207. The American Theory.** — The colonists professed loyalty to the king, but they did not acknowledge the authority of Parliament. They claimed that their relations were only with the crown. If, therefore, the British government needed money from the American colonies, it must be raised by the voluntary taxation of the colonies themselves, and not by a tax levied by Parliament.

**208. The English Theory.** — The English theory, on the other hand, was that the British Parliament had grown in its powers and claims into an "Imperial Parliament" which was to give the law to the whole empire; hence Parliament had passed the Navigation Laws.



Patrick Henry

(From a painting by T. Sully.)

**209. Writs of Assistance.** — When smuggling had become so common that these acts were practically dead-letters, English officers were granted writs of assistance. These writs authorized custom-house and naval officers to enter a man's store or even his dwelling-house whenever they pleased, to search for smuggled goods. The first use of these writs was especially opposed by James Otis, who declared them to be contrary to the English constitution. The General Court of Massachusetts protested, and appointed a committee to secure union of action. This was the first general movement for union on the part of the colonies. "Here Independence was born."

**210. The Stamp Act.** — In March, **1765**, Parliament passed the famous Stamp Act, which made it obligatory upon the colonies to have all legal documents, newspapers, pamphlets, etc., written or printed upon stamped paper, purchased of the British government. Dr. Franklin wrote to Mr. Charles Thompson, afterwards Secretary of Congress, "The sun of liberty is set; you must light up the candles of industry and economy." Mr. Thompson answered that he was apprehensive that other lights would be the consequence, and predicted the opposition that followed.

**211. Effects upon the Colonies.** — Great commotion followed the passage of this act throughout the colonies. The houses of British officers were mobbed; the agents for the sale of the stamps were seized; and the people agreed to use only articles of home manufacture. Various branches of home industry vastly increased their product. At Harvard College in 1770, the graduating class took their diplomas in "homespun" suits. Associations were formed, called the "Sons of Liberty," with the express design of resisting the law. The act was to go into effect on the first of November. On that day business was very generally suspended, bells were tolled, flags were at half-mast, and the day was widely observed as a day of mourning. Such men as James Otis, Samuel Adams, John Adams, and Patrick Henry made stirring addresses to the people.

**212. Stamp Act Congress.** — On the **7th of October, 1765**, the first American Congress assembled in New York. This was the first union of the American people represented by delegates elected by each separate colony, for the purpose of considering their rights and privileges, and of obtaining a redress for the violation of them on the part of the mother country. In all its votes these representatives recognized each colony as equal to any other, "without the least claim for pre-eminence, one over the other." This was called the "Stamp Act Congress."

**A Famous Speech.** — It was at this time that Patrick Henry made his famous speech before the House of Burgesses at Williamsburg, Va. against parliamentary taxation. This address gave Mr. Henry a great reputation throughout the country. While descanting on the tyranny of the obnoxious act, he exclaimed, in a voice and with a gesture which stirred the house, "Cæsar had his Brutus, Charles the First his Cromwell, and George the Third —" "Treason!" shouted the speaker. "Treason! treason!" echoed from every part of the house. Without faltering for an instant, but rising to a loftier attitude, and fixing on the speaker an eye which seemed to flash fire, Mr. Henry added with the most thrilling emphasis, "may profit by their example! If this be treason, make the most of it."

**213. Action of this Congress.** — It petitioned the king, the House of Commons, and the House of Lords. It also put forth a declaration of colonial rights. Its action was only declaratory; there was no attempt to legislate; and the importance of the meeting was simply that it demonstrated the possibility of union between the colonies.

LIBRARY OF THE

# CHAPTER XXXI.

## THE BOSTON MASSACRE.

**214. Tax on Tea.** — The Stamp Act was repealed in 1766, but Parliament still declared the right to tax the colonies, and the next year a new tax was imposed on tea, glass, paper, lead, and painters' colors. This act changed entirely the attitude of the colonists. The repeal of the Stamp Act had produced much better feeling, and the people had entertained the hope that Parliament would not again assert the right, which she claimed, of taxing them. Now, however, there was a great revulsion of feeling.

Samuel Adams.

**215. Its Effects.** — The determination not to submit to a tax was almost the universal sentiment. A board of trade was established at Boston to act independently of the colonial assemblies. The "writs of assistance" were legalized, and the New York Assembly was suspended. The colonies ceased to import taxed articles, so that the amount of receipts from the law was insignificant.

**216. Troops in Boston.** — The king's troops were now in Boston. Cannon were planted, sentries posted, and citizens challenged. Quarrels between the people and the soldiers were frequent. On the 5th of March, **1770**, a crowd of men and boys, exasperated by the presence of the redcoats, insulted the city guard.

**217. Boston Mob.** — In the evening several hundred persons with sticks or clubs gathered about King Street (now State Street), and threatened and provoked the soldiers with abusive language, daring them to fire. The officer ordered the soldiers into the barracks. By nine o'clock the mob gathered around the sentry, who was on

guard at the Custom-House, with cries, "Kill him! kill him! Knock him down!" Captain Preston, the officer of the day, sent a corporal and six men to protect the sentry. At length the assaulting party came to close quarters with the soldiers, still continuing their abuse and daring them to fire. The soldiers then fired upon the mob, and four persons were killed and five dangerously wounded, one of whom afterwards died.

218. **The Soldiers tried.** — A month later the soldiers were tried for murder, and were defended by John Adams and Josiah Quincy. Although these lawyers were stanch patriots, they felt that the killing was justifiable, and were determined that the soldiers should have justice. It was a notable trial. Captain Preston and six soldiers were acquitted, and two were convicted of manslaughter. The sentence that they be burned in the hand was executed in open court. They were then discharged. The result of this trial was regarded as proving the integrity of Boston juries, and as clearly showing that they would give upright verdicts, even in defiance of popular opinions.

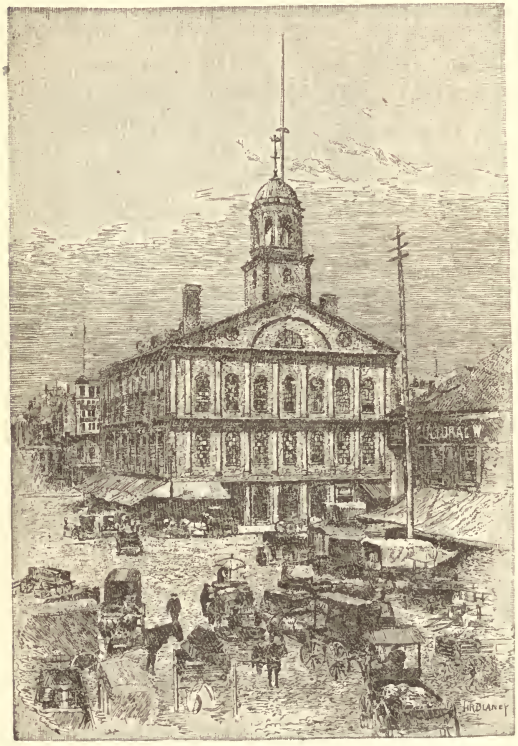
219. **The "Gaspee."** — On the 9th of June, **1772**, the British armed schooner "Gaspee," commanded by Lieutenant Dudingston, ran aground upon a point in Narragansett Bay. That night eight boat-loads of respectable men from Providence boarded the schooner, captured her, and burned both the vessel and its stores. The officers and crew were put on shore, and the attacking party returned to Providence. A reward of £100 from the governor, and an additional reward of £500 from the British government, for the discovery of any person engaged in the affair, as well as a reward of £500 more for the capture of the captain of the enterprise, were all without effect. In the Boston Massacre the first blood was shed by the British soldiers, but the affair of the "Gaspee" may be regarded as the real beginning of the revolutionary struggle.

Burning of the "Gaspee"

# CHAPTER XXXII.

## THE BOSTON TEA-PARTY.

**220. Opposition.** — The colonies were rapidly learning that they could co-operate with each other in their controversies with the British government. The opposition to the Tea Tax was becoming general. Threats were made against the pilots of Boston, if they should bring any vessels laden with tea into the harbor.



Faneuil Hall, "the Cradle of Liberty."

**221. Boston at Fever Heat.** — Public meetings were held, and resolutions were passed forbidding any tea to be landed or received. The feeling was rapidly growing that the quarrel between Great Britain and the Massachusetts colony must come, and that it might as well take place now as at any time. On November 18th, 1773, a committee was appointed to wait upon the consignees and request that they should resign their appointments. They refused to resign. On November 28th, Captain Hall, in the ship "Dartmouth," came to anchor, having on board one hundred and fourteen chests of tea.

**222. Public Meeting.** — The next day the good people of Boston found written notices posted in all parts of the town, inviting all friends of the country to meet at nine o'clock for concerted action to prevent the landing of the tea. The meeting adjourned until the next day, when it was determined that the tea should not be landed. Faneuil Hall being too small, the assembly adjourned to the Old South Meeting-House, where it was voted "that the tea shall not be landed, that no duty shall be paid, and that it shall be sent back in the same bottoms."

**223. Meeting in the Old South.** — On December 14th, 1773, the people of Boston and the neighboring towns met at the Old South Meeting-House and ordered the owner of the ship, Mr. Rotch, to apply immediately for clearance papers, and that the ship must sail away without landing any of its cargo. The clearance papers were refused by the collector. **December 16th, 1773**, the public meeting of citizens was continued, and several thousand persons were present. Josiah Quincy made a famous address, inquiring of the people if they would stand by their words with such decisive action as might be necessary. He advised them carefully to consider the issue, and to look forward to the end before entering upon their course of action. In the afternoon the question, "Will you abide by your former resolutions with respect to not suffering the tea to be landed?" was put. An affirmative answer was given unanimously. Mr. Rotch was ordered to procure a pass for his vessel. About six o'clock he informed the body that he had applied to the governor for a pass, which had been refused.

**Faneuil Hall.** — This famous building, which is usually denominated "The Cradle of Liberty," was first built in 1742 by Peter Faneuil, at his own expense, and given to the town. The first story was intended for a market, and the second story was added for a town hall. The building was destroyed by fire in 1761. It was rebuilt by the town with the aid of a lottery established by the colony for that purpose. This new building was dedicated March 14, 1763, when James Otis delivered the dedicatory address. It was enlarged in 1806 to its present size, and a third story was added. "The first public oration in the hall was the funeral eulogy, delivered in honor of its donor, Peter Faneuil, March 14, 1743, by Master Lovell, of the Latin School." When Boston was occupied by the British troops in 1775-76, theatrical entertainments, particularly ridiculing the patriots, were given in its hall.

It has been the scene of many brilliant social and political events. Entertainments have been given here to distinguished men almost without number. Its walls have echoed to the eloquence of Samuel Adams, James Otis, Daniel Webster, Wendell Phillips, Charles Sumner, and others. In this hall are many interesting portraits. The largest is the great painting representing Daniel Webster addressing the United States Senate on the occasion of his celebrated reply to Hayne of South Carolina.

**224. Indian War-whoop.** — It was voted that the meeting be dissolved. The crowd immediately ran to Griffin's Wharf. At the same time, twenty or thirty persons from the North End of the town, dressed as Indians, crossed Fort Hill, and at once boarded the tea ships. So expeditious was the proceeding that in two hours' time they had hoisted out of three vessels three hundred and forty-two chests of tea, broken them open, and discharged their contents into the salt water. The whole business was conducted in a very quiet way, with a multitude of spectators upon and around the wharf. No damage was done to the vessels or any other property, and when the work was finished the people returned to their homes in Boston and the surrounding towns.

**225. Retaliatory Measures.** — Such a bold proceeding could not go unpunished, and retaliatory measures were at once adopted by the British government. The climax was now reached. Party lines were drawn. The patriots were termed Whigs; the royalists were called Tories. Nothing apparently could now prevent a union of the colonies. Military companies, called "minute-men," were formed. From this time on it was evident that but little was needed to throw all the colonies into open rebellion, and that a spark would kindle the flames of war.

## CHAPTER XXXIII.

### ENGLAND RETALIATES.

**226. George the Third.** — King George III. was an obstinate man, arbitrary, and stubborn. He began his reign in 1760, when he was twenty-two years old. He died in 1820, after a reign of sixty years, the longest reign in the entire history of England. He was not a great statesman, and his chief characteristic was what we may call persistent wilfulness. He was now thoroughly bent on reducing the colonies to a state of submission. Lord North, his prime minister, was also hostile to the colonies. They therefore were able to secure from Parliament a series of the most severe and repressive measures.

**227. The Americans Still Loyal.** — The people of the colonies were strongly inclined towards loyalty to the mother country. They were Englishmen, and had no wish to be separated from Great Britain. Most revolutions are brought about by the leaders of the people. In this case, both leaders and people were averse to revolution, and only yielded to it when no other means were available for retaining their rights and their liberties. Had the British government manifested a spirit of conciliation, had it yielded to the better sentiment in America, it would have made the Revolution impossible, but Providence, which so often clearly shapes the course of nations, as well as of individuals, planned otherwise.

**228. "The Intolerable Acts."** — In March, **1774**, full intelligence of the proceedings at Boston was received at London. Before the end of April the British ministry had proposed, and Parliament had passed, a series of acts, which made the Revolution only a question of time. These were called by the colonists "The Intolerable Acts." They were intended to crush Massachusetts and awe the other colonies into obedience. The "Boston Port Bill" closed the town of Boston against all commerce until the tea which had been destroyed was paid for, and the inhabitants of the town returned to manifest loyalty. The "Massachusetts Act" changed the charter of that colony to such an extent that the governor's council and the sheriffs were to be appointed by the Crown; juries were to be selected by the sheriffs; and all town meetings were strictly forbidden, except by special permission of the governor. General Gage, who had been appointed commander-in-chief of the British forces in the colonies, was made governor, and four regiments of soldiers with proper artillery were sent to Boston to support him in his arbitrary measures, and to overawe the people. A special act required the transportation of offenders and witnesses to England or her other colonies for trial.

George III.

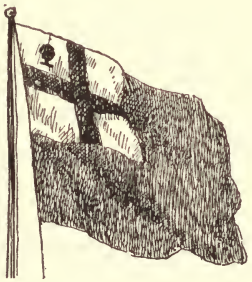
**229. The Quebec Act.**—The "Quebec Act," passed the same year, proposed ostensibly to regulate the government of Canada; but it would have resulted in raising a barrier between the Canadian provinces and the thirteen colonies, now on the verge of war. This act granted the free exercise of the Roman Catholic religion, and extended the province from the Gulf of St. Lawrence to the Mississippi River, which province was to be governed by officers appointed by the Crown. As might have been expected, the news of these severe, repressive acts crystallized at once every element of union in the colonies. The points embodied included all for which the colonies had been contending. The Quebec Act would cut off the colonies from the Western expansion to which they had been hopefully looking forward as plainly open to them for future settlement.

> **Bancroft says:** "The king set himself, his ministers, Parliament, and all Great Britain to subdue to his will one stubborn town on the sterile coast of the Massachusetts Bay. The odds against it were fearful; but it showed a life inextinguishable, and had been chosen to keep guard over the liberties of mankind. The old world had not its parallel. It counted but 16,000 inhabitants of European origin, all of whom learned to read and write. Good public schools were the foundation of this political system."

**230. Public Sentiment in Great Britain.**—It must not be supposed that these severe and unreasonable acts passed Parliament without strong and vigorous opposition. The king and his prime minister had a majority of Parliament in favor of their extreme measures of opposition to the colonies; but with only two or three exceptions all the eminent and shining lights of the country, under the leadership of Edmund Burke, were strongly opposed to these unjust measures of the government, and persistently advocated the rights of the colonies. These various acts of Parliament at once not only provoked a feeling of hostility to the home government, but also cemented every colony with all the others in one common sentiment of union. Thus it came to pass that the thirteen North American colonies rebelled against the mother country, and the American Revolution was precipitated. We shall see in the subsequent chapters how united the colonies became, and how patriotically and courageously they fought for independence, which, after years of desolating war, they finally secured.

## CHRONOLOGY.

**1760.** England — Reign of George III.
**1764.** England — Parliament passes the Navigation Laws.
England — Parliament votes to tax the colonies.
**1765.** England — Parliament passes the Stamp Act, March.
New York — Stamp Act Congress, October 7.
**1766.** England — Parliament repeals the Stamp Act, March.
**1767.** England — Parliament taxes tea, etc.
**1768.** Massachusetts — British troops arrive.
**1770.** Massachusetts — Boston Massacre, March 5.
England — Parliament removes taxes except on tea.
**1772.** Rhode Island — Burning of the "Gaspee," June 9.
**1773.** Massachusetts—Boston Tea Party, December 16.
**1774.** England — Parliament passes the intolerable acts.



Ensign carried by
New England ships before the Revolution.

# Blackboard Analysis.

- INDEPENDENCE
  - Military . . .
    - Resistance at Salem.
    - Concord and Lexington.
    - Ticonderoga and Crown Point
    - Battle of Bunker Hill.
    - Washington the Commander.
    - Evacuation of Boston.
  - Government.
    - Committees of Correspondence
    - Provincial Assemblies.
    - First Continental Congress.
    - Second Continental Congress.
    - Steps toward Independence.
    - The Declaration.

## SECTION VI.

### RESISTANCE LEADING TO INDEPENDENCE. 1775–1776.

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# CHAPTER XXXIV.

### THE FIRST CONTINENTAL CONGRESS.

**231. Committees of Correspondence.** — The colonies all had what they termed "Committees of Correspondence," and through these committees they kept one another informed by letter of what was going on. In Boston, only one town meeting a year was permitted by the governor. The citizens accordingly held one town meeting, and by adjourning from time to time made it last through all the year. Throughout the colonies first steps were being taken. They knew not whither these steps would lead; they hoped to a redress of grievances. As the result showed, they could lead only to independence.

**Samuel Adams,** one of the leaders of the Revolutionary patriots, probably foresaw independence quite as early as any other man. His influence in shaping public sentiment for absolute independence of Great Britain was, doubtless, second to that of no one. He was born in Boston in 1722, and died there in 1803. He was graduated from Harvard when he was eighteen years old. On taking the master's degree in 1743, he discussed the affirmative of the question, "whether it be lawful to resist the supreme magistrate if the Commonwealth cannot otherwise be preserved." He was always courageous and ardent, but was also always prudent and successful in bending the wills of others to his own purposes. His prominent characteristics were "an enthusiastic love of liberty, an inextinguishable hate of tyranny, great promptness of decision, and inflexible firmness."

**232. A Continental Congress proposed.** — On the 17th of June, 1774, Samuel Adams proposed in the Massachusetts General Court, held at Salem, that a Continental Congress should be called to meet in Philadelphia the first of September. Five delegates from Massachusetts were chosen. Two days earlier, Rhode Island had elected delegates to such a congress.

**233. The Massachusetts Provincial Congress.** — A few months later, the House again met in Salem and resolved itself into a Provincial Congress to be joined by such other members as should be chosen. They then adjourned to Concord, and there elected John Hancock president. After transacting what business was necessary, they adjourned to Cambridge, and there, October 21st, 1774, a committee drew up a plan for the immediate defence of the colony. A committee of safety was appointed to attend to all military matters, and a committee of supplies to furnish resources for the committee of safety.

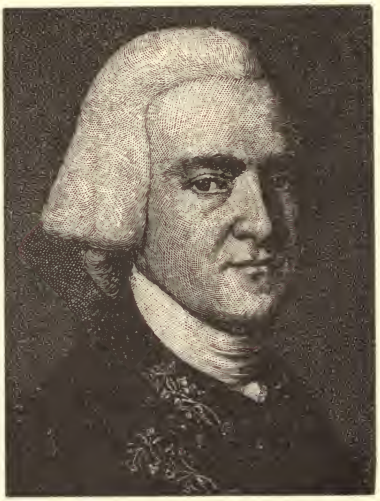
**The Massachusetts Seal** shows the figure of an Anglo-American holding a drawn sword, with the motto "*Ense petit placidam sub libertate quietem.*" (With the sword she seeks calm peace under liberty.) The story of this motto is an interesting one. Algernon Sidney was a famous patriot in Cromwell's time. In 1659 he was one of the council of State, and he was sent to Denmark on a political mission. While there he wrote his name in the king's autograph book, and added this motto in Latin. The minister from France felt that this was an insult to the monarchs of Europe, and cut out the motto from the king's book. In 1772 Sidney's works, having been out of print for a long time, were republished in a fine edition by that other famous lover of liberty, Thomas Hollis. The frontispiece was a profile likeness of Sidney, and underneath it was told this story of the Latin motto. Hollis was a great friend and benefactor of Harvard College, and he sent over a copy of this book, and presented it to the Harvard Library. There it fell under the eyes of the Massachusetts patriots. Its sentiment so neatly expressed their own thought, and was so applicable to the time and the conditions surrounding them, that they promptly adopted it for the motto of this new Commonwealth. It has never been changed, and will doubtless go down to the centuries to come, perpetuating the sentiment so dear to the heart of that famous liberty-loving patriot of Cromwell's time.

**234. Massachusetts raises an Army.** — In November, this Congress decided to raise an army of twelve thousand men, and appointed proper officers for it. Thus a revolutionary government was in full operation in Massachusetts. The drift toward revolution was apparent in every colony. The Provincial Congress remained the government of the people in Massachusetts until the 19th of July, 1775, when it dissolved itself, and a new House of Representatives, whose members had been chosen by the several towns, according to their usage and their charter, organized, by choosing James Warren as speaker. James Bowdoin was made president. The present seal of the Commonwealth was adopted.

**235. The First Congress.** — The first Continental Congress met in Carpenters' Hall, Philadelphia, on the **5th of September, 1774.** This Congress resulted from an almost universal and simultaneous demand from the various colonies. The first call came from Virginia.

**236. Proposed by Massachusetts.** — The Massachusetts General Court, at Salem, on June 17th, appointed five delegates to a Congress

"That might be convened the first of September at Philadelphia." All the colonies except Georgia appointed delegates. This Congress included many sagacious men, well versed in governmental affairs. Among them may be named George Washington, Richard Henry Lee, Peyton Randolph, Patrick Henry, and Benjamin Harrison, of Virginia; Samuel Adams and John Adams, of Massachusetts; John Dickinson, of Pennsylvania; Christopher Gadsden and John Rutledge, of South Carolina; Dr. John Witherspoon, President of the College of New Jersey; Stephen Hopkins, of Rhode Island; Roger Sherman, of Connecticut; and John Jay, of New York.



John Hancock.

(After a painting by J. Singleton Copley in the Boston Museum of Fine Arts.)

**237. What it Did.**—All votes taken by this Congress were by States, every State having one vote.

The important action was as follows: —

1. A declaration of rights.
2. An agreement to stop exports to Great Britain and imports from there, and to discontinue the slave trade after the first of December.
3. An address to the British people.
4. A petition to the king.
5. The formation of the "American Association."
6. An address to the people of Canada, Nova Scotia, and the Floridas.
7. A provision for another Congress, to be held in May, 1775.

**238. How it was Done.** — The business of this Congress was executed with remarkable skill. William Pitt said: "For solidity of reason, force of sagacity, and wisdom of conclusion under a combination of difficult circumstances, no nation or body of men can stand in preference to the General Congress at Philadelphia. The histories of Greece and Rome give us nothing equal to it, and all attempts to impose servitude upon such a mighty continental nation must be in vain."

# CHAPTER XXXV.

## THE FIRST ARMED RESISTANCE.

**239. Resistance.** — The king and his prime minister were bent on subduing the colonies. They thought the task would be an easy one. The appeal of the Continental Congress to the king was as idle as the wind. But all the colonies were solid in their determination that they would never submit to the king's arbitrary measures.

Patrick Henry in Virginia, and Samuel Adams in Massachusetts, lighted the torch of liberty for the South and the North, preceding the American Revolution. Henry was born in 1736, and died in 1799. He was a good Latin scholar, and acquired some proficiency in mathematics before he was fifteen years of age. He was admitted to the bar at the age of twenty-four years. His famous speech against the Stamp Act gave him a great reputation throughout the country. He was a member of the Continental Congress in 1774, of which he was the first speaker. His eloquence astonished all, and he soon took rank as the greatest American orator. He caused the colony of Virginia to be put in a thorough state of defence. He was the first Republican governor of his State, serving from 1776 to 1779. After the close of the war he was again governor until 1786. In 1788 he was a member of the State Convention which ratified the National Constitution, which he opposed with all his eloquence and strength. He declined high offices under the Federal government, offered him by Washington and by Adams.

(See his "Life and Times," in two volumes, by his grandson, William Wirt Henry.)

**240. Independence foreseen.** — Here and there one among the leaders was able to see that a revolution was inevitable. James Otis, Samuel Adams, and Joseph Hawley, in Massachusetts, and Patrick Henry in Virginia, were probably the first men who clearly saw that independence was the only solution of the problem. Washington foresaw that these parchment measures of the Congress would prove of no avail. Hawley of Massachusetts wrote, "After all, we must fight." When Patrick Henry heard his letter read, he replied, "I am of that man's opinion."

**241. Leslie at Salem.** — Gage had fortified Boston Neck, and determined to prevent the people from arming themselves. He sent Colonel Leslie with three hundred of the king's troops from Castle Island to Salem, to capture a number of cannon secreted there. On Sunday morning, February 26th, 1775, this force sailed out of Boston Harbor, and by noon anchored at Marblehead. The good people of that town at once suspected the object of this Sunday excursion. Major John Pedrick mounted his horse, and, riding

rapidly to Salem, gave notice to the people assembled in their several churches of the approach of Leslie and the troops. The services were instantly suspended. All repaired to the North Bridge.

**242. At Salem North Bridge.** — The draw of the bridge was raised, and Colonel Timothy Pickering, commanding the militia, prepared to resist the crossing of Leslie. A parley ensued. Leslie threatened to fire. He was instantly warned that should his men fire, not a man of them would leave Salem alive. Rev. Thomas Barnard, pastor of the North Church, finally effected a compromise. It was that the bridge should be lowered and Leslie allowed to cross it and proceed thirty rods beyond, on his promise as a man and a soldier that he would then countermarch his forces and return to Boston. This was done; but in the mean time the cannon had been spirited away under cover of the buildings, and concealed under leaves in the woods beyond. This was the first armed resistance to British soldiers, and but for the prompt sagacity and skill of Mr. Barnard, would doubtless have resulted in the first bloodshed of the Revolution. As it was, however, the affair was bloodless; the colonists saved their cannon, and Leslie returned crestfallen to report his ill-success to his general.

## CHAPTER XXXVI.

### LEXINGTON AND CONCORD.

**243. The Expedition.** — Gage was alert. He was determined that the "rebels," as he called them, should not gather military supplies. The committee of the Provincial Congress were as constantly active. They had caused military stores to be deposited at Concord and Worcester. Concord was twenty miles from Boston, and Worcester was forty. Gage turned his attention to Concord. At eleven o'clock on the evening of April 18th, eight hundred regulars, the flower of the king's army in Boston, embarked upon the Charles River, from behind the Common, proceeded up the river, and landed at Phipps' farm; from whence they marched to Concord, under command of

Lieutenant-Colonel Smith and Major Pitcairn. The major led the advanced troops. News of the expedition had preceded them.

**244. At Lexington.** — A considerable body of minute-men from the surrounding country had gathered upon the green near the meeting-house in Lexington. About five o'clock in the morning of **April 19th, 1775**, Major Pitcairn at the head of his troops arrived at Lexington. He rode around the meeting-house, and with drawn sword in one hand and a pistol in the other, called out, "Disperse, you rebels! Throw down your arms, and disperse!" A solemn silence ensued. He rode a little further, fired his pistol, flourished his sword, and ordered his soldiers to fire. The patriots scattered, concealed themselves here and there under cover, and continued to annoy the enemy with desultory firing.

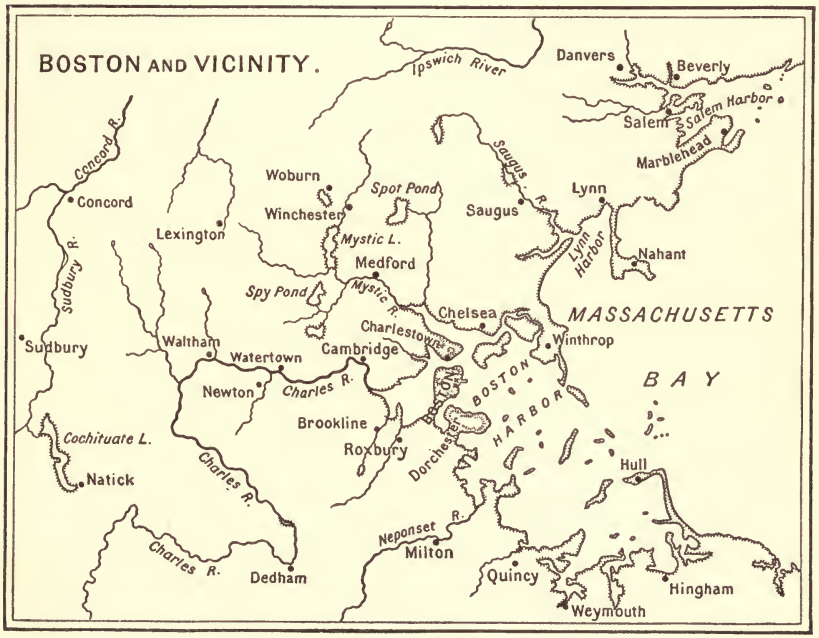
**Yankee.** — "You may wish to know the origin of the term *Yankee*. It was a cant, favorite word with farmer Jonathan Hastings, of Cambridge, about 1713. Two aged ministers, who were at the college in that town, have told me they remembered it to have been then in use among the students, but had no recollection of it before that period. The inventor used it to express excellency. A Yankee good horse, or Yankee cider, and the like, were an excellent good horse, and excellent cider. The students used to hire horses of him; their intercourse with him, and his use of the term upon all occasions, led them to adopt it, and they gave him the name of Yankee Jon. He was a worthy, honest man, but no conjurer. This could not escape the notice of the collegiates. Yankee probably became a by-word among them to express a weak, simple, awkward person; was carried from the college with them when they left it, and was in that way circulated and established through the country, till from its currency in New England, it was at length taken up and unjustly applied to the New Englanders in common, as a term of reproach." (Gordon's American War, pp. 324–5.)

**245. On to Concord.** — The detachment marched on to Concord. The provincials, finding that the regulars were too numerous to warrant attacking them, retired across the North Bridge, and waited for reinforcements. The British disabled several cannon, threw five hundred pounds of ball into the river, and destroyed sixty barrels of flour. The militia were now reinforced, and advanced upon the regulars. The British fired first, and at this first fire, Captain Isaac Davis of Acton and one private soldier were killed. The fire was returned; a skirmish ensued; and the British retreated, having lost several men, killed and wounded, and some prisoners. Meantime Gage had despatched Lord Percy with nearly one thousand men and two pieces of cannon to support his advanced forces. The brigade marched out, playing "Yankee Doodle."

**246. The Retreat from Lexington to Boston.** — Lord Percy came up with the retreating column at Lexington, and gave the troops under Colonel Smith a breathing time, especially as they now had cannon

which prevented the provincials from pressing upon their rear in a direct line. But the militia and minute-men were rapidly collecting from all quarters. The whole British column was obliged to renew their march or have their retreat cut off. Constant skirmishing continued, until the regulars reached Boston. The loss of the British was two hundred and seventy-three; of the Americans, eighty-eight.

**247. Massachusetts raises an Army.** — The Provincial Congress at once resolved "that an army of thirty thousand men be immediately




raised and established; that thirteen thousand six hundred be from this province; and that a letter and delegate be sent to the several colonies of New Hampshire, Connecticut, and Rhode Island." The military headquarters were fixed at Cambridge. General Artemas Ward was made commander-in-chief of the Massachusetts troops. General John Thomas commanded at Roxbury. Captain John Derby, of Salem, received the first naval commission from Massachusetts, and sailed at once for England with despatches from the Provincial Congress to Dr Franklin, containing an account of the

Lexington fight and an address to the inhabitants of Great Britain. The war of the Revolution was begun, and it was now clear that there would be no peace, except by submission or independence.

**248. Military Activity everywhere.** — Despatches giving an account of the battle were sent post-haste through all the colonies. Immediately military activity was displayed everywhere. Twenty thousand militia hastened to Boston. In Rhode Island a brigade of three regiments, with a train of artillery, was placed under command of General Nathaniel Greene. At Charleston, South Carolina, volunteers were armed from the arsenal. In Georgia the royal magazine was seized. The power of the royal governors — from Massachusetts to Georgia — was gone. Committees of safety were appointed to provide for emergencies, and to call out the troops. Soon twenty thousand men were at work throwing up intrenchments around Boston to shut up the British in that city.

## CHAPTER XXXVII.

### TICONDEROGA AND BUNKER HILL.

**249. From Connecticut to Vermont.** — General Gage had set the example of seizing military stores. Retaliation appeared to be not only warrantable but necessary for self-defence. A secret expedition was planned by some leaders in Connecticut. A few sterling men, having procured a quantity of powder and ball, set off on horseback for Bennington, in Vermont, then called the New Hampshire Grants.

**250. Ethan Allen and Benedict Arnold.** — At Bennington they found Colonel Ethan Allen, a native of Connecticut. At Castleton they were joined by Colonel Benedict Arnold, who had been commissioned by the Massachusetts committee to raise four hundred men for the same purpose. It was agreed that Allen should take command, and at daybreak, May 10th, with eighty-three men, Allen and Arnold marched side by side to the entrance of Fort Ticonderoga, overpowered the sentinel, and demanded a surrender. The fort was commanded by Captain De La Place, to whom this attack was a complete surprise.

**251. The Fort surrenders.** — The fort was out of repair; and as he had but about thirty effective men, La Place could do nothing but surrender. The boats, which had brought Colonel Allen and his men across the lake, returned at once for the remainder of the force, which was under command of Colonel Seth Warner. Ticonderoga had surrendered, however, before these men could cross.

**252. Crown Point surrenders.** — Colonel Warner immediately set out for Crown Point, which he captured on the 12th. Warner was left in command at Crown Point, and Colonel Arnold at Ticonderoga. These two successes were of great importance to the colonies, because it gave them a large amount of military stores. Soon after, these brave officers captured a sloop of war which was lying at St. John's at the foot of the lake, and sailed with it for Ticonderoga. These successes gave the Americans full command of Lake Champlain and the surrounding country.

**253. Bunker Hill.** — And now we come to the first real battle of the war. The Massachusetts Committee of Safety recommended to the Provincial Congress to occupy Bunker Hill and Dorchester Heights. The Congress therefore passed an order on the 16th of June, directing Colonel Prescott with one thousand men to take possession of the hill the following night, and fortify it. Breed's Hill, however, either because more directly commanding the landing or from inadvertence, was marked out for the intrenchment, instead of Bunker Hill. In silence the patriots pushed forward, carrying arms, shovels, and dark lanterns. Between midnight and the dawn of day they had thrown up a redoubt about eight rods square.

**254. The British open Fire.** — The British ship "Lively" was stationed in the channel directly opposite. When its captain came on deck in the early dawn, **June 17th, 1775,** he discovered the breastworks, and about four o'clock opened fire. Soon after, the British

artillery on Copp's Hill began firing upon the Yankee fort. It was a hot morning, but the tired Americans continued the work with their shovels until noon, notwithstanding a heavy fire both from the ships in the channel and from Copp's Hill in Boston. During the forenoon the Americans had succeeded in throwing up breastworks from the east side of their redoubt to the bottom of the hill northward.

The Battle of Bunker Hill.

(Copyright, 1896, by Silver, Burdett & Company.)

Although an incessant shower of shot and bombs was rained upon them by the batteries, yet but one man was killed.

**255. British Troops transported to Charlestown.** — Between twelve and one o'clock the British forces to the number of about three thousand men were transported by boats and barges from Boston to Charlestown, under command of Major-General Howe and Brigadier-General Pigot. The regulars formed in two lines, and advanced deliberately towards the American works.

**256. American Officers in Command.** — The patriots were under command of Colonel Prescott. Colonel Stark commanded the

New Hampshire troops, and General Putnam had selected Captain Knowlton to command the Connecticut company. General Warren, General Pomeroy, and General Putnam were all on the field, aiding and encouraging here and there as the case required. The Americans reserved their fire till the regulars were within ten or twelve rods, when they poured upon them a terrific discharge of musketry.

**257. The British repulsed.** — The contest continued until the stream of American fire was so incessant, and did such execution, that the regulars retreated in disorder and with great precipitation toward the landing-place, where their boats still were. At length they were rallied by their officers, and a second time advanced with steady pace up the hill, marching with apparent reluctance toward the intrenchments. The Americans reserved their fire till the enemy were within five or six rods.

**258. The British repulsed Again.** — The execution was fearful. Some of their officers declared it would be downright butchery to lead their men against such lines. But British honor was at stake. The fortifications must be carried. General Howe and his officers doubled their exertions for renewing the attack the third time. The ammunition of the Americans was exhausted. Meantime the town had been fired in several places; and one great blaze, burning with amazing fury, was rapidly sweeping from existence three hundred dwelling-houses, and nearly two hundred other buildings.

**259. The Americans retreat.** — Reluctantly but unavoidably the provincials were ordered to retreat. They were forced by absolute necessity to withdraw. They, however, delayed, and for some time kept the enemy at bay. They finally withdrew in good order across the neck which joins Charlestown to the main land. While these brave men were retreating, General Warren was shot in the head and died instantly.

**260. The British Losses.** — The British held possession of the field, but the loss which they had sustained was fearful, amounting in killed and wounded to more than one thousand men, including sixty-nine officers. Some companies were almost all either killed or wounded.

**261. The American Losses.** — The entire loss of the provincials was between four hundred and five hundred; the majority being wounded only, many of them but slightly. Each army lost about one-third of its force. The loss of General Warren, who only three days before

had received his appointment from the Massachusetts Congress as a major-general, was the occasion of great sorrow. The British considered his death as better for them than that of five hundred men. Charlestown was now a heap of ruins, the women and children barely escaping with their lives.

**General Joseph Warren** was born in Roxbury, 1741, and was graduated at Harvard at the age of eighteen. His political sentiments were often in advance of public opinion; for he held that all taxation imposed by the British government upon the colonies was nothing less than tyranny. His firmness and decision as a leader were only equalled by the prudence and wariness of all his plans. He was twice chosen to deliver the oration on the 5th of March, in commemoration of the Boston Massacre. The second of these was pronounced in the Old South Meeting House, in defiance of the threats of the British officers, that any man who should make a public address on that anniversary should lose his life. He was a delegate to the Massachusetts Congress in 1774, over which he presided. He was chairman of the Committee of Public Safety, and as such exercised the executive power of the new commonwealth.

**262. Results of the Battle.** — The result of this battle on the one hand was to inspire courage in the minds of the colonists, and on the other to give to the British a clearer idea of the greatness of the task which they had undertaken. General Gage at once saw that it would be difficult to subdue America. To the Americans the consequences of the battle were equal to a decided victory. General Ward in a general order said: "We shall finally come off victorious, and triumph over the enemies of freedom and America." Dr. Franklin wrote to his English friends: "The Americans will fight; England has lost her colonies forever." On the other side, General Gage wrote to Lord Dartmouth: "The rebels are not the despicable rabble whom many have supposed them to be. The conquest of this country is not easy."

## CHAPTER XXXVIII.

### THE SIEGE OF BOSTON.

**263. The Second Congress.** — On the **10th of May, 1775**, a few hours after the surrender of Ticonderoga, the second Continental Congress met at Philadelphia. It was a notable body, and it had a remarkable work before it. Peyton Randolph was its first president. Its members were experienced and sagacious men. Among them were Washington, Samuel Adams, and Patrick Henry; Franklin, Jay, and

Livingston; John Adams, Richard Henry Lee, and George Clinton; and others almost equally well known throughout the colonies, conspicuous for their ability and statesmanship. They sought a redress of grievances, but it soon began to appear that independence was their only means of relief. They listened to the narrative of the deeds at Lexington and Concord. They learned of the capture of Ticonderoga and Crown Point. It was apparent that a continental army must be organized.

**264. Washington appointed Commander-in-Chief.** — A request for a continental army came from the Congress of Massachusetts, and John Adams suggested that Washington should be appointed commander-in-chief. On the 15th of June, he was elected by a unanimous ballot. His commission styled him "General and Commander-in-Chief of the Army of the United Colonies." This phrase—"The United Colonies" — continued to be used until the Declaration of Independence substituted the name "The United States." Congress now assumed the defence of the country: it adopted a continental currency; it established a treasury department; it organized a post-office department and appointed Franklin as postmaster-general; it created an army and appointed a general, four major-generals, and eight brigadier-generals.

The "Washington Elm," Cambridge, Mass.

**265. The New Commander.** — The principal part of the army being in the vicinity of Boston, Washington repaired thither. He arrived at Cambridge on the 2d of July. On the next day, the continental forces were formed in close column upon and around the Common. When they had been drawn up in order, Washington, beneath a tall

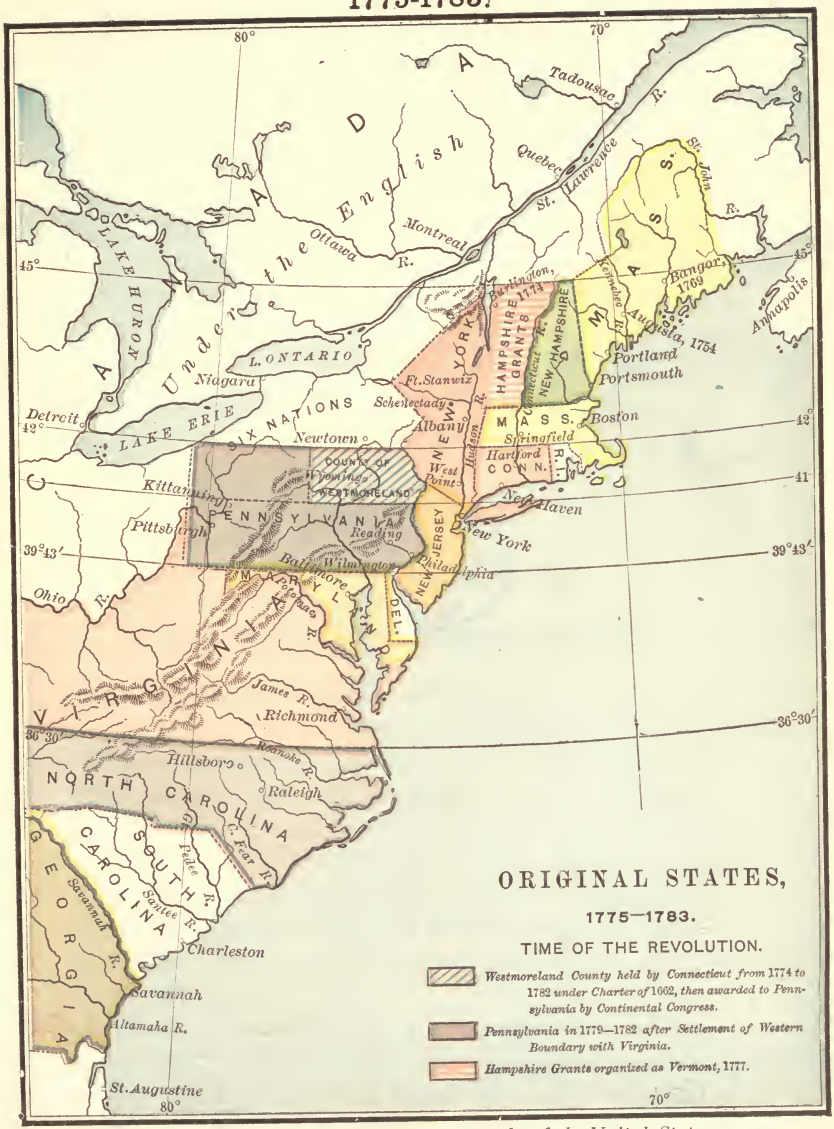
elm-tree, whose long and graceful branches seemed to nod assent as they waved back and forth in the summer breeze, mounted his horse, drew his sword, and assumed command. This was almost one hundred and twenty-five years ago, yet the old elm is still standing, — an object lesson in patriotism to multitudes of pilgrims, and a constant reminder of the great deeds of the fathers to the thousands of students gathered from all parts of our broad land within the halls of Harvard University.

**266. Washington's Army.** — Washington was now forty-three years of age. He was tall, sinewy, well-proportioned. "His chest was broad, his figure stately, blending dignity of presence with ease." He was dressed according to the fashion of the time, in a "blue broadcloth coat, buff small-clothes, silk stockings, and a cocked hat." The army which Washington was to command numbered about fourteen thousand men. It was a motley crowd, badly clothed, poorly armed, with many unfit for service. In August, Washington divided his forces into three divisions, and placed them under command respectively of Generals Ward, Lee, and Putnam. The headquarters were at Roxbury, Cambridge, and Winter Hill. Washington made every effort to feed and clothe his army, and to bring them to a better condition of military discipline. He issued orders respecting profanity, gambling, religious bigotry, gossip, and indecency, which illustrate his conception of the character of a patriotic citizen soldiery.

**267. The Winter of 1775–76.** — The winter which followed was long and wearisome to all. All connection between Boston and the surrounding country was cut off, and Gage was completely penned up in the town. There was much suffering among the inhabitants from a scarcity of provisions. The British army endeavored to make the best of their situation. The Old South meeting-house was turned into a riding-school. Faneuil Hall became a play-house, where the officers appeared as actors, and balls and even a masquerade were planned.

**268. Boston evacuated.** — In March, Washington fortified Dorchester Heights by night. In the morning, Lord Howe, who was now in command of the British forces, was astonished to see these new intrenchments, which overlooked and threatened the city. General Clinton had advised him to fortify this height; his neglect

# 1775-1783.

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CALIFORNIA

cost him the loss of Boston. He remembered the lesson which he had learned at Bunker Hill, and so instead of attacking this southern frontier, he decided to leave the city, and accordingly sailed away with his army, fleet, and many Tories for Halifax. The city was evacuated **March 17th, 1776**, and the continental troops from Roxbury at once marched in. From Cambridge they crossed in boats. The British had left behind them, in the hurry of their flight, several hundred cannon, many thousand bushels of wheat, barley, and oats, a large number of horses, and bedding and clothing for the soldiers. On the 22d of March the restrictions on intercourse between country and town were removed, and many citizens of Boston, who had for a long time been exiled from their homes, returned, and all hearts were touched at "witnessing the tender interviews and fond embraces of those who had been separated."

## CHAPTER XXXIX.

### FIRST STEPS TOWARD INDEPENDENCE.

**269. Expedition against Quebec.** — Late in the summer of **1775**, General Montgomery, with a considerable force, made an expedition by way of Lake Champlain against Canada. He captured St. Johns, found Montreal deserted, took possession there, and pushed on to Quebec. Meantime, Colonel Benedict Arnold, a brave soldier and a brilliant officer, accompanied by Aaron Burr, with more than one thousand men, joined Montgomery at Quebec, having made a desperate march through the wilds of Maine, in which they endured untold hardships. Before they reached the St. Lawrence their supplies were entirely gone.

**270. Americans Unsuccessful.** — The two generals joined their forces about the first of December, advanced upon Quebec, and demanded its surrender. Montgomery was killed December 1st, and Arnold was wounded. The city was defended by more than two hundred guns besides the infantry. A portion of the invading army surrendered; and at the approach of spring, the remaining forces were

glad to leave Canada in the hands of England, and retrace their steps homeward.

**271. The Colonies declare for Independence.** — The leaders in the Continental Congress were patiently waiting the development of public opinion. The first explicit sanction given by any State for independence was the action of North Carolina, **April 12th, 1776**, when the North Carolina Congress unanimously authorized their delegates in the Continental Congress, in concurrence with delegates of the other colonies, to declare independence of foreign allegiance. At Charlotte, North Carolina, as early as May 31st, 1775, the county of Mecklenburg had, by a convention of delegates, declared in favor of absolute independence.

**272. Rhode Island the First State.** — The first State actually to declare herself independent of Great Britain was Rhode Island. This act was passed **May 4th, 1776**, just two months prior to the Declaration of Independence by the Continental Congress. This famous act declares that "In all States existing by contract, protection and allegiance are reciprocal, the latter being due only in consequence of the former." The act then goes on to say that hereafter all commissions for offices, and all writs and processes in law, shall be made out in the name and by the authority of "The Governor and Company of the English Colony of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, . . . that the Courts of Law be no longer entitled nor considered as the King's Courts, and that no instrument in writing . . . shall mention the year of the said King's reign."

In closing the record of the General Assembly the words "God save the King" were changed, and "God save the United Colonies" appeared for the first time on the records of the ancient plantation. From this time we may regard Rhode Island as an independent State.

**273. South Carolina.** — On the 23d of April the court at Charleston, South Carolina, was opened and the Chief-Justice charged the Grand Jury in these words: "The law of the land authorizes me to declare, and it is my duty to declare the law, that George the Third, king of Great Britain, has abdicated the government, that he has no authority over us, and we owe no obedience to him."

**274. Virginia quickly follows.** — On the 6th of May, the House of Burgesses of Virginia met at Williamsburg, but "as they were

of the opinion that the ancient constitution had been subverted by the king and Parliament of Great Britain, they dissolved themselves unanimously, and thus the last vestige of the king's authority passed away from that colony."

**275. Other Colonies declare for Independence.** — On the first day of May, Joseph Hawley of Massachusetts wrote: "For God's sake let there be a full revolution. Independence and a well-planned Continental Government will save us." A very large majority of the towns declared unanimously for independence. The choice of all New England was spontaneous and undoubted. On the 14th of June, Connecticut instructed its delegates to favor independence, and a permanent union of the colonies. Thus one by one every colony demanded independence.

## CHAPTER XL.

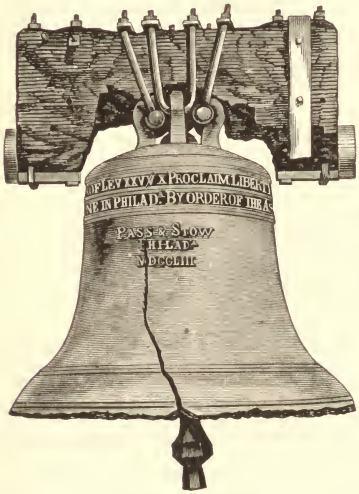
### THE BIRTH OF THE NATION.

**276. The Declaration.** — Hitherto the colonies had been struggling only for a redress of grievances. Richard Henry Lee early in June introduced into Congress a resolution declaring that *These United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States*. The first day of July was agreed upon as the day of final action. On that day, in committee of the whole, they discussed the resolution. John Adams made a masterly argument in its favor, and John Dickinson, of Pennsylvania, opposed the measure as premature. In committee, nine colonies, two-thirds of the whole number, voted for the resolution. Action by the Congress was postponed until the next day.

**277. Declaration passed, July 2d.** — July 2d the great step was to be taken. Every member of Congress seemed to be fully aware that, should they pass the resolution, then "to recede would be infamy, and to persist might be destruction." The vote was decisive. New York was unable to vote; but twelve colonies, with none dissenting, agreed to adopt and stand by the following resolution: "These United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free

and independent States." The grandeur and heroism of this act can scarcely be comprehended. At the end of that great day, John Adams wrote as follows: "The greatest question has been decided which was ever debated in America, and a greater, perhaps, never was nor will be decided among men. Britain has been filled with folly, and America with wisdom. It is the will of Heaven that the two countries should be sundered forever."

**278. Jefferson drafts the Formal Document.** — A committee had been appointed to draw up the declaration, and set forth the reasons for it. Of this committee Thomas Jefferson had received the largest number of votes, and was thus singled out "to draft the confession of faith of the rising empire."



The Liberty Bell.
(Now hanging in Independence Hall, Philadelphia, Pa.)

**279. It passes and the Bell rings.** — On the evening of the **Fourth of July**, Congress, having listened to the entire document as read by Jefferson, and having made some slight changes in it, "rendering its language more terse, more dispassionate, and more exact," came to the final vote. New York still abstained from voting; but twelve States, without one negative, agreed to this "Declaration by the Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled." The bell on the Pennsylvania State House, which was afterwards rung to announce that the measure had passed, bore the words around its base: "Proclaim liberty throughout the land, unto all the inhabitants thereof." Leviticus xxv. 10.

Let every American become familiar with the words of this document, and cherish its phrases. (Appendix B.) Let every pupil in the public and private schools of the land, read it. Let its great truths and principles sink into our hearts. Its closing words were these: "And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of DIVINE PROVIDENCE, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor."

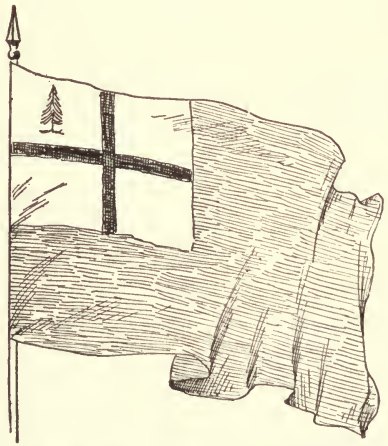
## CHRONOLOGY.

**1760.** England — Reign of George III.

**1774.** Philadelphia — First Continental Congress meets, September 5.
Philadelphia — Congress adopts Articles of Association.

**1775.** Massachusetts — Armed resistance to British authority, February 26.
Massachusetts — Lexington and Concord, April 19.
Massachusetts — Siege of Boston.
New York — Ticonderoga, May 10.
New York — Crown Point, May 12.
Philadelphia — Second Continental Congress meets, May 10.
Philadelphia — Congress chooses a commander, June 15.
Massachusetts — Bunker Hill, June 17.
Massachusetts — Washington assumes command, July 3.
Quebec — Americans defeated, December 31.

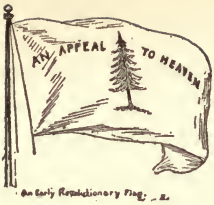
**1776.** Massachusetts — Evacuation of Boston, March 17.
Rhode Island — First colony to declare independence, May 4.
Philadelphia — Declaration of Independence, July 4.



Flag used by the New England troops at the battle of Bunker Hill

# Blackboard Analysis.

- **CAMPAIGNS OF THE REVOLUTION**
  - **New York** . . .
    - Battle of Long Island.
    - Loss of the City.
  - **New Jersey** . .
    - Battle of Trenton.
    - Battle of Princeton.
    - Lafayette.
  - **Pennsylvania** .
    - Battle of Brandywine.
    - Loss of Philadelphia.
    - Battle of Germantown.
  - **Burgoyne** . . . .
    - Battle of Bennington.
    - Battle of Bemis' Heights.
    - Battle of Saratoga.
    - British Surrender.
  - **France** . . . . .
    - The Treaty.
    - The French Fleet.
  - **Middle States**
    - British at Philadelphia.
    - Americans at Valley Forge.
    - Battle of Monmouth.
  - **Northwest** . . .
    - Capture of Kaskaskia.
    - Capture of Vincennes.
  - **New York** . . .
    - Wayne at Stony Point.
  - **On the Sea** . . .
    - Paul Jones and the Serapis.
  - **Treason** . . . . .
    - Command of West Point.
    - Plot with André.
    - Execution of André.
    - Plan to capture Arnold.
  - **In the South** . .
    - Capture of Savannah.
    - Surrender of Charleston.
    - Loss of the South.
    - Partisan Warfare.
    - Camden and King's Mountain.
    - Battle of Cowpens.
    - Greene in North Carolina.
  - **Yorktown** . . .
    - Cornwallis in Virginia.
    - The Siege.
    - Surrender of Cornwallis.
  - **Peace** . . . . . .
    - Lord North resigns.
    - Five Commissioners.
    - Three Important Points.
    - Provisional Treaty.
    - Treaty of Paris.



An Early Revolutionary Flag.

# SECTION VII.

## STRUGGLE FOR INDEPENDENCE. 1776–1783.

## CHAPTER XLI.

### LOSS OF NEW YORK CITY.

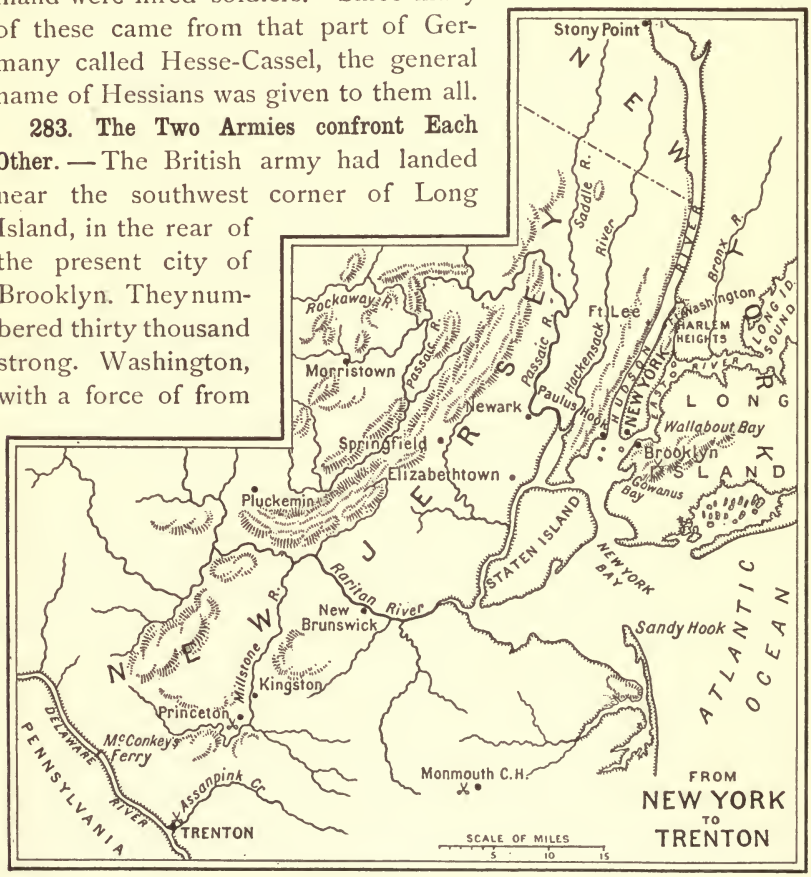
**280. The United States of America.** — The DECLARATION was passed on the **Fourth of July, 1776**, duly authenticated by the president and secretary, and was published to the world. It was not signed by the members of Congress until some time afterward. The thirteen British colonies had ceased to exist. They were no longer colonies but THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA. The adoption of this declaration by the Congress was only an expression of the will of the people throughout the country. The news of its passage was received with joy and rejoicing from Maine to Georgia.

**281. New York the Strategic Point.** — And now the war was really begun in sober earnest. The British had been driven out of Boston, and now determined to strike a decisive blow at New York. If they could obtain possession of that city, they would control the Hudson River. This would effectually separate the New England colonies from those south of New York, and prevent their giving aid to each other. If they succeeded, they could then direct operations, with good promise of success, against Boston on the one side, or Philadelphia on the other.

**282. Troops concentrate at New York.** — General Howe, who had gone to Halifax from Boston, sailed for New York. His brother, Admiral Howe, came with reinforcements from England. General Clinton also arrived, from the south. Washington had anticipated this movement as soon as the British evacuated Boston, and had

labored incessantly to prepare New York for defence. The British army had every advantage. It was ably officered. General Howe and General Clinton were aided in the command by Lord Cornwallis, Lord Percy, General von Heister, and other important officers. A large number of the troops under their command were hired soldiers. Since many of these came from that part of Germany called Hesse-Cassel, the general name of Hessians was given to them all.

**283. The Two Armies confront Each Other.** — The British army had landed near the southwest corner of Long Island, in the rear of the present city of Brooklyn. They numbered thirty thousand strong. Washington, with a force of from




seven thousand to eight thousand, had taken an advantageous position on the North River, in New York, and had prepared, by sinking vessels in the channel, and by ranging his cannon at Forts Washington and Lee for a cross-fire, to dispute the passage of the British vessels up the river. Meanwhile General Greene, with a force of

about eight thousand men, had fortified the hills in Brooklyn, to prevent their capture by the British.

**284. The Battle of Long Island.** — Before the battle began, General Greene was taken sick, and the command fell upon General Sullivan. The battle was fought on the 27th of August, **1776**. The American forces marched directly against the British, and for a time succeeded in resisting the attack of the superior force. Through neglect or a failure to appreciate the position, the American line lay especially open to an attack upon its left flank. The main army of the British, by a manœuvre to their right, surrounded the American left, and placed them all in imminent danger of capture. The Americans succeeded in falling back to their defences. General Sullivan was captured, and the American loss, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, was about a thousand.

The Americans retreated to Fort Putnam. Had General Howe at once attacked that fort, he would have cut off their retreat, and captured the whole force. He waited, however, for his fleet to intercept them, and this gave General Washington an opportunity to withdraw the force from Brooklyn. The army retreated to New York on the night of the 29th.

**Nathan Hale.** — While Washington was in doubt as to the future movements of General Howe, he intrusted to Captain Nathan Hale the delicate duty of visiting Long Island to obtain the desired information. Hale was arrested, summarily tried, and executed as a spy by the British on the 22d day of September, 1776. He was a graduate of Yale College, and a man of fine promise. He was not permitted to write even to his mother; and the contrast between the brutal treatment which he received and the courtesies afterwards extended to André, under similar conditions, only endeared his memory to the American people. He died "regretting that he had but one life to give to his country."

**285. Operations about New York.** — On the 14th of September, the British fleet occupied the East River, and the American army evacuated New York City. Washington retired to Harlem Heights, which he promptly fortified. On the 16th, General Howe was repulsed in an attack upon the American forces, but he succeeded later in passing Washington's left. Washington at once extended his line to White Plains, where he took up a strong position. An unsuccessful attempt was made upon the American lines, October 28th. The loss of each in this battle was about one hundred and fifty. Howe waited for reinforcements, and Washington withdrew to North Castle Heights, which he strongly fortified. The British general did not attack the Americans, but retired to New York City.

**286. Washington crosses the Hudson.** — Washington feared that the British would enter New Jersey, and push forward to Philadelphia. Therefore he crossed the Hudson, and fixed his headquarters at Fort Lee. Howe decided to reduce Fort Washington before entering New Jersey, as it was a permanent menace both to the river and the city. He made the attack on the 16th of November, and after a fierce struggle, in which the British lost nearly five hundred men, the Americans were obliged to surrender. The number of prisoners, including officers, was about twenty-five hundred men.

**The First American Treason.** — Carrington gives a foot-note, in his latest edition of "Battles of the American Revolution," showing that William Almont, adjutant of McGaw's regiment, deserted to Howe, and placed in his hands detailed plans of Fort Washington, especially of the steep and weakly guarded ascent near the river, where the determining assault was made, in the rear of the active lines of defence.

**287. Dark Days.** — This was a terrible loss to the patriots. The British vessels could now pass safely up and down the North River. Washington withdrew his forces to Newark. These were dark days for the American cause. The army was discouraged, and desertions were frequent. Philadelphia was in danger, and the Congress adjourned to Baltimore. Washington himself considered the cause to be in a most critical condition.

## CHAPTER XLII.

### DEFENCE OF NEW JERSEY.

**288. Washington a Skilful General.** — Washington had already shown real military genius. His retreat from Long Island, his manœuvrings on Manhattan Island, his withdrawal across the Hudson, were movements performed under the most unfavorable circumstances, with a small army of raw recruits, undrilled, undisciplined, mostly enlisted for short terms of service, and opposed by a vastly superior force of British regulars and Hessian mercenaries, commanded by experienced officers of the foremost nation in the world; yet he saved his army, and soon turned the tide of defeat into glorious victory.

**289. Discouragements thicken.** — While the patriots waited for the turn of affairs, the public heart was nearly discouraged. Washington was obliged to say, "I think the game is pretty nearly up, unless reinforcements arrive, or regiments re-enlist." Samuel Adams, with tears rolling down his cheeks, exclaimed, "O my God, *must* we give it up?" The British army followed Washington from Newark to New Brunswick, and from New Brunswick to Trenton. At Trenton, the Americans crossed the Delaware.

**290. Lee captured.** — Washington had left General Lee in command at North Castle. He sent repeated orders to Lee to join him with all possible haste. Lee hesitated, and at last moved his force into New Jersey. Even then he intended to act independently of Washington. There, one night, when he was quartered away from his troops, he was taken prisoner by the British cavalry. This was a great misfortune to the Americans, who had a high regard for Lee's military ability. General Sullivan took command of Lee's forces, and promptly joined Washington's army.

**A Bold Push.** — General Lee remained a prisoner until he was exchanged for General Prescott. The capture of General Prescott was made on the night of July 9th, 1777. He was in command of the British force, stationed at Newport, and had his headquarters at a farmhouse four miles from the town, and a mile from any of his troops. Colonel William Barton, of the Rhode Island Militia, embarked with a party of forty volunteers, and rowed across Narragansett Bay. The party stole silently across the fields, surrounded Prescott's house, burst open the doors, and took the general and Lieutenant Barrington out of their beds. They hurried them to the water's edge, succeeded in rowing past the stern of the British guardship, returned to Warwick, and the next morning forwarded the prisoners to Providence. While in the boat, General Prescott remarked to Colonel Barton, "You have made a bold push to-night, colonel." "We have done what we could, general," was the reply.

**291. The Situation.** — Meantime, many Pennsylvania recruits joined the American force, so that it numbered six thousand or seven thousand men. The patriots had been driven from Canada, been forced to give up Crown Point, and had lost the control of Lake Champlain. Sir Peter Parker, with a British squadron, had taken possession of Newport, which was the second town in New England. The little provincial fleet that was stationed in Narragansett Bay under Commodore Hopkins was forced to take shelter in Providence River.

**292. Washington captures Trenton.** — Under these distressing circumstances, Washington resolved to strike a sudden blow, and, if possible, force a victory from the enemy. As early as December 14th, Washington had watched for an opportunity "to face about,

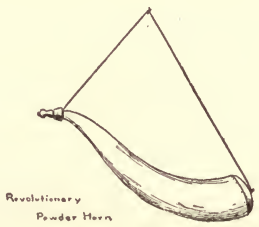
and meet the enemy." Lee's disobedience had postponed offensive action. Enlistments were soon to expire, and Washington's hope was that regiments would enlist, if only for a short time. The British were stationed at New Brunswick, Princeton, Trenton, and other places in New Jersey, and felt themselves secure from attack. The Hessian troops were distributed along the Delaware as far as Burlington, with a small force at Trenton. Washington's plan was that the Delaware should be crossed simultaneously at three points, but the floating ice and other obstacles prevented the combined movement. Washington, with the left wing of twenty-four hundred men, crossed on Christmas night. The advance was made in two divisions, one taking the lower road to Trenton, and the other the upper or Pennington road. Both divisions met the enemy at eight o'clock, **December 26th, 1776.** The Hessian troops, concluding that they were surrounded, and must inevitably be cut to pieces, surrendered, after preliminary skirmishing, in which their loss was about thirty killed and wounded; while the Americans lost but two men, besides two or three frozen to death. The Americans took one thousand prisoners, with arms and ammunition. The following evening, Washington recrossed the Delaware with his prisoners, their artillery, and colors.

**293. The British alarmed.** — This battle had a very depressing influence upon the British army, but, as might be expected, produced great joy throughout the American States. The several detachments of the British, stationed at different points in New Jersey, were now thoroughly alarmed. They left Mt. Holly, Bordentown, and Burlington. The troops at New Brunswick marched to Princeton. After two or three days' rest, Washington again crossed the Delaware, and took up his position at Trenton. Cornwallis, who had gone to New York with the intention of embarking for England, hastily returned, and with a large force, on the 2d of January, 1777, confronted Washington.

**294. The Battle of Princeton.** — Washington was now cut off from retreat across the Delaware, and separated from the army of Cornwallis only by a small river. Having carefully fortified his front and guarded the bridges by earthworks and artillery, as if to accept battle on the morrow, he kept campfires burning during the night. At midnight, he left the Delaware in his rear, and early the next

morning, **January 3d, 1777**, attacked Cornwallis's base of supplies at Princeton. The sound of his guns was the first warning to Cornwallis that he had been outgeneralled, and he hastened in that direction. Washington had gained another brilliant victory. This result was almost altogether due to the ability and intrepidity of Washington himself. When the battle was begun, the British, under Colonel Mawhood, by an impetuous onset, threw the Americans into confusion, so that officers and men seemed seized with a panic, which spread fast and indicated a speedy defeat. Just then Washington came up. He saw that the tide must instantly be turned, or his army would be lost. He called upon the troops to rally, and rode boldly forward himself, facing the enemy, to within thirty yards of their line, and stood exposed to their fire. The British volley was immediately returned by the Americans, with their general sitting upon his horse between the two bodies, and thus so enveloped in the smoke as not to be seen by either party. When the smoke lifted, both sides expected to see him fallen, but he was unhurt. Not a bullet had touched him.

**295. The Victory.** — The sight of their commander under such circumstances, and the thought of his intrepid bravery, so inspired the American troops that they rushed forward and fought with singular valor, defeated the enemy, and won a great battle. The British loss in this engagement, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, was between three hundred and four hundred. The Americans lost one hundred, among them General Mercer who was bayoneted and died of his wounds. Washington now marched on to Morristown, from which place, as headquarters, he sent out several expeditions, and finally recovered the greater part of the State. The American troops spent the winter at Morristown. New forces were raised in the several States, and by early spring the army was in good fighting condition.

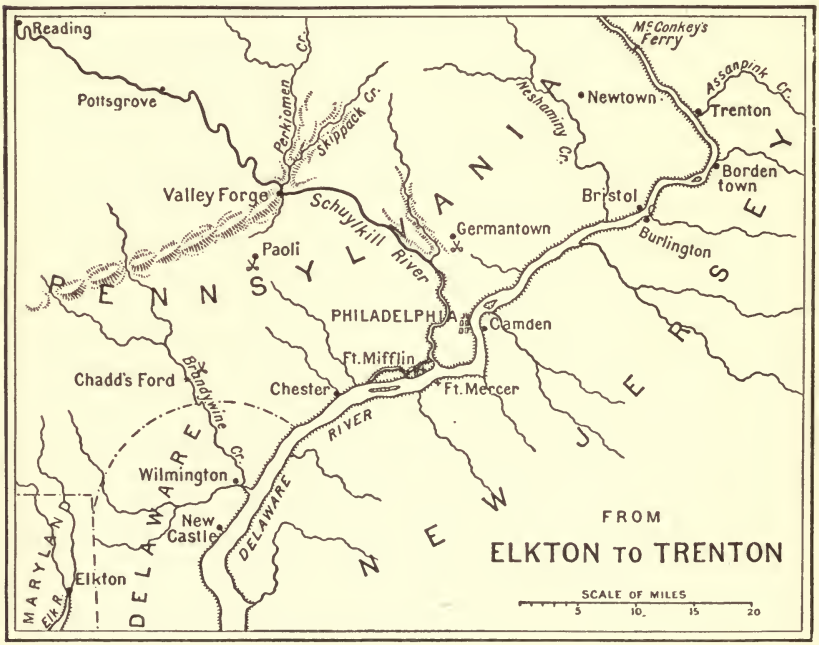


Revolutionary Powder Horn

# CHAPTER XLIII.

## BRANDYWINE AND GERMANTOWN.

**296. Howe outgeneralled.** — General Howe, during the summer of 1777, kept his army in the vicinity of New York manœuvring to gain some advantage of position. Finding, however, Washington so wary and alert as to give him no opportunity, he finally decided to take the field, and force the Americans to a general engagement. At first he endeavored to march to Philadelphia. Washington's




force was too small to meet him in open fight, but he managed so to worry him and delay his movements that the British general finally returned to New York.

**297. Howe goes South.** — He then embarked eighteen thousand men on British vessels, under command of his brother, Lord Howe,

and set sail. His first effort was to go up the Delaware, but, finding it obstructed and fortified, he returned and sailed around through Chesapeake Bay. He landed his men at Elkton, near the head of the bay, and marched toward Philadelphia. Washington hurried south to meet him, having determined to risk a battle for the defence of Philadelphia. Washington had at this time under his command an army of about eleven thousand men ready for duty.

**298. The Battle of Brandywine.** — He took up a position on the east side of Brandywine River, with the intention of disputing the passage of the British across the river. The advance column of the British was in command of Knyphausen, a Hessian general. He attacked the American forces at Chadd's Ford, directly in their front. While the battle was progressing at this place, Howe, with a large force, having pushed farther up the river, crossed his troops at Jeffrey's Ford, turned the flank of the American army, and struck its rear. The patriots were routed, Lafayette was wounded, and Washington was forced to retreat to Philadelphia. He and his generals had chosen a good position, and had well and skilfully resisted the advance of the largely superior force of the British.

**General Lafayette,** the distinguished soldier and statesman, was born at Chavagnac, France, in 1757. He died in Paris in 1834 at the age of seventy-seven years. He was of a race of statesmen and soldiers. He came to this country in his own vessel, in company with Baron de Kalb, having ten other vessels, in 1777, and offered his services to Washington as a volunteer aid, being then but nineteen years of age. He was appointed major-general, and became a member of the military family of Washington. He was wounded at the battle of Brandywine while rallying the retreating Americans. He was engaged in various battles during the Revolution, and it was mainly through his efforts that the army of Rochambeau was sent to America in 1780. He assisted materially in cutting off the retreat of the British from Yorktown, and was present at the surrender of Cornwallis. For his services he was publicly thanked by Washington on the day after the surrender. He visited America in 1784, and was everywhere received with great affection and respect. He again visited us, by invitation of Congress in 1824, and his progress through the country was like a continuous triumphal procession.

**299. The British occupy Philadelphia.** — The night after the battle the American forces withdrew to Chester, and the day following to Philadelphia. During the next two weeks occurred a series of manœuvres alike creditable to the military genius of both sides. No general battle, however, took place. On the 26th of September, Lord Cornwallis entered Philadelphia with a detachment of his army. The remainder of his forces encamped at Germantown, while Washington with his army went to the northward, farther up the Schuylkill. The force of the Americans was too small in comparison with the British army to warrant

committing the fate of America to the uncertain issue of a general engagement.

**300. The Battle of Germantown.** — Reinforcements were received from Peekskill, and from Maryland. Cornwallis was at Philadelphia, and Howe in command at Germantown. Washington now determined to give battle. On the 4th of October the Americans attacked the British at Germantown. At first the Americans were successful; but Colonel Musgrave, with six companies of the fortieth regiment, occupied a large stone house near the head of the village, from which he poured such a terrible fire of musketry upon the Americans that they could advance no further. It was found impossible to dislodge the British from this stronghold, and although General Greene had routed the British right wing, yet the delay at the stone house was such that his success could not be followed up, and the issue appeared for some time doubtful.

**301. A British Victory.** — A dense fog set in. Prisoners were taken and retaken; opposing forces became confused with each other. Additional British troops came up, and the Americans retired. Thus a victory, of which in the commencement of the action they had felt assured, failed of realization. The Americans lost in killed about one hundred, wounded five hundred, and prisoners four hundred. The British loss was over five hundred killed and wounded.

## CHAPTER XLIV.

### BURGOYNE'S EXPEDITION.

**302. A New Scheme.** — The British ministers decided to attempt to cut off the Eastern States from the rest of the country. Burgoyne had gone to England and laid before the ministers his plan for an expedition from Canada to Lake Champlain, and down the Hudson. If the country along the Hudson and the lake could be held by British troops, the forces of the Americans would be so divided that one part could be captured and then the other. Burgoyne arrived at Quebec in May, and soon started on his expedition. He had nearly eight thousand men. One-half of his whole force were German

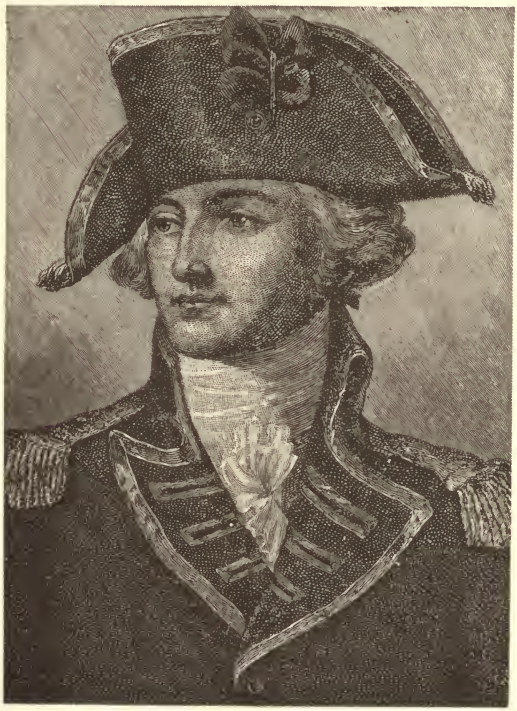
mercenaries. He had in addition more than six hundred Canadians attached to the army, who were to scour the woods on the frontiers, and occupy intermediate posts. His army was in the best condition, and the troops in the highest spirits, well disciplined and healthy. General Schuyler had taken possession of Fort Ticonderoga, but the British army so far outnumbered him that he was obliged to abandon it, and he moved his force to Hubbardton. An engagement took place here, July 6, from which the Americans were compelled to retreat with the loss of over three hundred and fifty killed, wounded, and prisoners, while the British loss was over two hundred.

**303. Bennington.** — In August, Burgoyne sent Colonel Baum with about one thousand men to Bennington to seize some stores at that place. On the 16th of August, the British force met a body of Vermont and New Hampshire militia, under command of Colonel Stark. The engagement was a fierce one; the Americans fought with intrepid bravery. The British were totally defeated, and Colonel Baum was mortally wounded. The loss to the Americans was less than one hundred, while the British loss in killed, wounded, and prisoners was about eight hundred. The Americans captured much war material. The gallant conduct of Stark was promptly recognized by his promotion to the rank of general.

**304. St. Leger up the Mohawk Valley.** — St. Leger had been sent by Burgoyne to the Mohawk Valley with seven hundred rangers, with orders to call out the Indians and the Tories, overrun the country, and afterwards join Burgoyne at Albany. St. Leger on this expedition increased his force by about one thousand Tories and Indians. He besieged Fort Schuyler, which was situated where the present city

of Rome is. General Schuyler sent General Arnold to relieve Fort Schuyler.

**305. Arnold's Stratagem.** — Arnold succeeded in raising the siege by an adroit stratagem. A half-witted Tory boy was held as prisoner; Arnold promised him his freedom on condition that he should make the British believe that a large body of Americans was close at hand, ready to capture the entire British force. The boy performed his part with great success. He rushed into their camp, excited and breathless, showed his coat full of bullet-holes, told them that the great American army was right upon them, and created such a panic, especially among the Tories and Indians, that they were soon in full flight.



General Burgoyne.

**306. Burgoyne's Condition Critical.** — Burgoyne and his army were now in a critical situation. For a long time they had been short of supplies. The force which he had sent to Bennington, in the hope of bringing back large stores, had been utterly defeated. The expedition of St. Leger to the Mohawk Valley had been routed, and returned empty-handed. The great confidence which he had placed in Indian soldiers had proved only a disappointment. His employment of Indian allies was as unpopular in England as it was unjustifiable and barbarous in itself. Edmund Burke pronounced them "not fit allies for the king in a war with his people." These Indians were now rapidly leaving Burgoyne. It was a perilous moment for the

British army; to advance or to retreat was alike dangerous. Burgoyne, however, determined to reach Albany if possible.

**307. Stillwater, or Freeman's Farm.** — He therefore moved his army across the Hudson, and, September 19th, met the Americans at Freeman's Farm below Saratoga. An obstinate battle ensued. The contest continued until darkness closed in upon the scene. In the afternoon there was one continual blaze of fire for three hours without intermission. Again and again one army drove back the other, and then was driven back in turn. Three British regiments were under close fire for nearly four hours. Several cannon were taken and retaken repeatedly. Few battles have shown more obstinacy in attack or defence. The British lost in this action more than five hundred in killed, wounded, and prisoners. The total loss of the Americans was three hundred and twenty-one.

**308. Two Weeks' watching.** — For two weeks afterwards the two armies occupied their respective camps, engaged in fortifying and watching for a favorable opportunity to renew the attack. General Arnold was removed from his command. Burgoyne's condition was desperate. His provisions were almost exhausted, and he must either fight or fly.

**309. Bemis Heights.** — October 7th Burgoyne again marched out to attack the Americans. During the conflict Arnold, though not in command, rushed into the thickest of the fight. Seeing this, Gates ordered him to be recalled, but he was beyond reach. Although he had no authority to command, he led his former troops in a desperate charge upon the British line. Constantly in the midst of British bullets flying around his head, he delivered his orders in person, impetuously urged on his men, and drove the British to their camp. The frightened Hessians fled. Arnold was wounded and carried from the field, but he had gained for the cause a great victory. The Americans took more than two hundred prisoners, captured nine pieces of artillery, the entire equipment of a German brigade, and a large supply of ammunition. The British lost many officers, including General Frazer, Sir James Clark, Burgoyne's aide-de-camp, and others.

**310. Burgoyne must surrender.** — Burgoyne now had no hope of escape. His Indians and Tories were constantly deserting; his

provisions were gone. On the 11th he had but three thousand, four hundred men for duty, and rations for only three days. The American batteries commanded the whole British camp. On the 13th he called a council of war. There was no spot of ground in his entire camp where this council could deliberate without being exposed to cannon or rifle shot. While it was in session an eighteen-pound ball crossed the table. Burgoyne immediately decided to capitulate. Terms were proposed and refused. General Gates, fearing that if the surrender were longer deferred, Clinton might reinforce Burgoyne, sent a flag of truce to the British general on the morning of **October 17th, 1777**, requiring the general to sign the terms of surrender which he had last proposed, within ten minutes, or hostilities would be reopened.

**311. The Surrender.** — The papers were signed within that time, and the Americans marched into the British lines to the tune of "Yankee Doodle." Burgoyne surrendered an army of five thousand, seven hundred and sixty-three men. If we add to this number the prisoners previously taken, and the loss of the enemy at Bennington, the total loss will reach about one-third of the entire British force in America. Burgoyne's army was quartered for a time at Cambridge and Rutland, but afterwards marched to Charlotte, Virginia, where many permanently settled when exchanged. The palisade which enclosed them was an object of interest for many years after the war.

**The Stars and Stripes.** — The Congress had lately adopted the "stars and stripes" as the national banner. The first flag with the stars and stripes was made by Mrs. Betsey Ross, of Philadelphia, from a pencil sketch drawn by General Washington himself, early in the year 1777. The new flag was used on the occasion of marching off the captured army. General Gates received the credit for the victory, but Benedict Arnold is justly entitled to great praise for his bravery and skill in the engagement.

**312. "Among the Fifteen Great Battles."** — This battle has sometimes been reckoned as among the fifteen decisive battles that, within twenty centuries, have had a permanent bearing upon the world's history. The defeat of Burgoyne and his army had an important influence upon the public sentiment of both England and America. The expedition had been planned wisely and skilfully. Its success would have gone far toward subduing the rebellious colonies. Its utter failure created a strong reaction in England in favor of the Americans. As, on the one hand, its

success would have had a very disheartening effect upon the patriots, so, on the other, its entire failure brought hope and courage to many a despondent American.

**313. Negotiation with France.** — The capture of Burgoyne greatly increased our chances of ultimate success in the eyes of France. In 1763 England had robbed France of Canada (¶ 160). For this France continued to cherish feelings of revenge against England. As early as 1776 the Continental Congress had sought an alliance with France. She was not then ready to act openly, but secretly furnished us arms and supplies. Franklin had been sent over to Paris as our minister to the French government. Louis XVI. was upon the throne. When the news of Burgoyne's surrender reached him, he hesitated no longer.

**Benjamin Franklin.**
(After the engraving by Baron Desnoyers, Paris.)

**314. France acknowledges our Independence.** — On the **6th of February, 1778**, the government of France acknowledged the independence of the United States, and entered into a treaty of alliance with the new republic. This was the first acknowledgment of our independence by any European power, and the first treaty of alliance. It was signed by Benjamin Franklin, Silas Deane, and Arthur Lee. It was ratified by Congress on the 4th of May following.

**315. Its Effects.** — At this, America was elated; England was dejected. The British government at once sent commissioners to America for the purpose of effecting a reconciliation on any terms

possible, if the revolted colonies would again acknowledge their allegiance to the British crown. But our people now would be satisfied with nothing short of absolute independence. Congress therefore rejected the proposal.

**316. Arrival of a French Fleet.** — Two months after France had acknowledged our independence, she sent over a fleet, under command of Count D'Estaing, to aid America. This squadron consisted of twelve ships of the line and four frigates of superior size, having on board four thousand troops. Monsieur Conrad A. Girard, the first French ambassador to the United States, came over at this time. D'Estaing arrived in Delaware Bay in July, with the intention of capturing the entire British fleet. The British commander, Lord Howe, had already sailed away. Had the French fleet arrived in season, the destruction or capture of the entire British squadron would probably have taken place. As the British fleet had escaped, D'Estaing sailed to New York; but as his heavy ships could not cross the bar he proceeded thence to Newport, Rhode Island.

## CHAPTER XLV.

### VALLEY FORGE AND MONMOUTH.

**317. The British in Luxury.** — During the autumn, several minor engagements occurred between the two armies in the vicinity of Philadelphia. The winter of **1777–78** was passed by the British army in the city. General Howe and his officers led a luxurious life; they abandoned themselves to a continuous series of balls, dances, and the social entertainments incident to life in a great city.

**318. Valley Forge.** — The condition of the American army presented a complete contrast to all this. A little more than twenty miles northwest of Philadelphia, on the right bank of the Schuylkill, was a small village of picturesque beauty, called Valley Forge, now of little consequence except from its historical associations. On the 19th of December, 1777, Washington established his little army at this place for winter-quarters. The location was bleak

and desolate. Along the line of hills the patriots threw up breastworks, and behind them, with fence-rails and earth, erected their simple huts. One small room on the ground-floor of a stone house, owned and occupied by Isaac Potts, a plain farmer, served both for headquarters and lodgings for General Washington, the commander-in-chief.

**Washington at Prayer.** — It is related that one day "Friend Potts" was on his way up the creek when he heard the voice of prayer. Following the direction of the sound, he soon discovered Washington upon his knees, his cheek wet with tears, pouring out his soul to God. When the good farmer arrived at his home, he said to his wife, with much emotion, "George Washington will succeed! George Washington will succeed! The Americans will secure their independence!" "What makes thee think so, Isaac?" inquired his wife. "I have heard him pray, Hannah, out in the woods, to-day, and the Lord will surely hear his prayer. He will, Hannah; thee may rest assured he will."

**319. The Americans in Starvation.** — Here behind the breastworks and within the several redoubts were huddled together in scant quarters, largely unprotected from the inclement weather and the cold of the season, the soldiers of the American army. Their supplies came principally from Chester and Montgomery counties. Their provisions were scant; their clothing was poor in quality and insufficient in quantity. Sometimes the soldiers could be tracked by the blood from their naked feet, which crimsoned the white snow. At one time Washington wrote to Congress that he had "no less than two thousand, eight hundred and ninety-eight men now in camp unfit for duty, because they are barefoot and otherwise naked," and that for "seven days past there had been little else than a famine in the camp."

**320. Conway Cabal.** — As if his cup were not yet full, an intrigue was on foot, which nearly succeeded, designed to supersede Washington and place Gates in command. The intrigue received no countenance from the army. The soldiers to a man were loyal to Washington. General Conway, an intimate friend of Gates and inspector-general of the army, who was largely instrumental in instituting the cabal, dared not show himself to the army, and finally the attack recoiled on the heads of its instigators. Ah! could Washington have only foreseen with what enthusiasm the people of the whole country would flock to honor him in the first year of his presidency, twelve years later, when he made a journey which was one long series of ovations, it certainly would have encouraged his heart and nerved his hand for his daily duties; but that of course was denied him.

**321. Congress adopts Measures of Relief.** — This was the gloomiest period of the war. During January a committee from Congress visited Washington, and obtained some idea of the condition and necessities of his army. On their return they recommended the adoption of the suggestions which Washington had made to them, for the thorough reorganization of the army in respect to all matters of enlistment and supply. Later Baron Steuben received the appointment of major-general, and entered upon the work of organizing, training, and disciplining the army. Before spring opened, courage had returned to both officers and men. In May came the inspiring news of the alliance with France.

**News of the Alliance.** — "On the 7th of May, 1778, at nine o'clock A.M., the American army was on parade. Drums beat and cannon were fired, as if for some victory. It was a day of jubilee, a rare occurrence for the times and place. The brigades were steady, but not brilliant in their formation. Uniforms were scarce. Many feet were bare. Many had no coats. Some wore coats made of the remnants of their winter blankets. The pomp and circumstance of war was wanting. There was no review by general officers, with a well-appointed staff. Few matrons and few maidens looked on. There stood before each brigade its chaplain. God's ambassador was made the voice to explain this occasion of their expenditure of greatly needed powder. The Treaty of Alliance was read, and in solemn silence the American army at Valley Forge united in thanksgiving to Almighty God that he had given them *one friend on earth.* One theme was universal, and it flutters yet in the breasts of millions, 'Praise God from whom all blessings flow.' Huzzas for the king of France, for Washington, and the Republic, with caps tossed high in air, and a rattling fire through the whole line, terminated the humble pageant."

(From Carrington's "Battles of the American Revolution.")

**322. Clinton succeeds Howe.** — In May General Howe returned to England, being replaced by General Clinton. Washington realized that the French alliance would compel the British to concentrate at New York. In order to hasten this movement and to free the neighborhood of Philadelphia from the ravages and depredations which the British were inflicting, Washington decided to press closely on the enemy. Lafayette was given his first command, and, with twenty-one hundred picked troops and five pieces of artillery, he successfully resisted Clinton's night attack with five thousand men. Washington regarded this movement as one of the best managed in the war.

**323. The Battle of Monmouth.** — Clinton evacuated Philadelphia, June 18th, 1778. The American army was in readiness to follow the retreating enemy. The command would naturally fall upon General Lee, but he protested against the pursuit of Clinton, and declined to engage in the movement. When Lafayette accepted and had set

out on the march, Lee begged him "for his honor's sake" to yield to him the command. Lafayette courteously granted the request, on the distinct condition that Lee should faithfully carry out the orders and attack Clinton. The pursuit continued, and on **June 28th, 1778**, the enemy were overtaken at Monmouth Court House, now Freehold, where a battle took place.

**324. Lee disobeys.** — Clinton labored under the disadvantage of a heavy baggage train, and was anxious only to reach New York. He was being hard pressed by the American forces, when Lee ordered a general retreat. This encouraged the British to take the offensive, and the arrival of Washington alone saved the day. Rising in his stirrups and towering over the cringing Lee, he sternly demanded the reason for the retreat. As at Princeton, his presence in extremest peril turned the tide of battle. By his personal bearing, manner, and tone of voice, he expressed that sublime wrath which followed his conviction that the army and the country were wilfully imperilled by the disobedience of Charles Lee.

Monument at Freehold, N. J., commemorating the Battle of Monmouth.

**325. Washington saves the Day.** — By his own celerity of movement, by intelligent orders, and by a seizure of wise defensive positions, Washington restored the confidence of his troops, and before nightfall had occupied a strong advance line. Shortly after midnight, Clinton withdrew his forces, hastened to Sandy Hook, and thence to New York. Lee was tried and found guilty of "disobedience of orders in not attacking the enemy," "misbehavior before the enemy," and disrespect to the commander-in-chief. He was

suspended for twelve months, but he never returned to the army. The battle of Monmouth was the last important conflict fought in the Northern States. A beautiful monument has recently been erected to commemorate this notable engagement. It stands on the public square, — or triangle, rather, — in the town of Freehold, not far from the Monmouth Court House. During the summer and autumn terrible massacres were committed by the Indians, especially at Wyoming, Pennsylvania, and Cherry Valley, New York. Washington took up his position at White Plains again, where he remained until he went into winter-quarters in New Jersey.

**General George Rogers Clark** was a conspicuous character west of the Alleghanies, throughout the entire period of the Revolution, and later. His several expeditions against the French and the Indians of the Northwest probably saved that country to the United States. In like manner we secured the country south of the Ohio, including the Mississippi territory, by the ability, bravery, and patriotism of John Sevier, James Robertson, and others. General Clark was born in Albemarle County, Virginia, in 1752. The expedition against Kaskaskia and Vincennes, when he was twenty-five years old, was intrusted to him by Patrick Henry, Governor of Virginia. The sufferings of officers and men in this expedition across the wilderness of Illinois, often over the drowned lands, including every privation from fatigue, wet, cold, and hunger, are almost without parallel in the history of military expeditions in this country. His military ability, power of endurance, bravery, and patriotism, were of the highest order. His services to his country were great, but he died near Louisville, Kentucky, in his sixty-sixth year, in obscurity and poverty.

**326. Colonel Clark at the Northwest.** — In the summer of **1778**, Colonel George Rogers Clark conducted an expedition through the Western territory against the French settlements which had been planted by the Canadians in the Illinois country. He marched his force more than twelve hundred miles through an uncultivated and uninhabited wilderness. He surprised the town of Kaskaskia in the night, and captured it. Colonel Clark secured the written instructions which Rocheblave, the governor, had received from Canada for setting on the Indians, and paying them great rewards for the scalps of the Americans.

**327. Clark captured Vincennes.** — Governor Hamilton of Detroit had placed himself at the head of seven hundred Indians, with the intention of sweeping the Ohio and Kentucky country, and destroying all American settlements. Colonel Clark, hearing that Hamilton had captured Vincennes and fortified it, determined to attack him. He made a hasty march with only one hundred and thirty men, being all he could raise. He attacked Hamilton February 19th, 1779, captured the town, and the next day received the surrender of the fort. On his return, Colonel Clark transmitted to the Vir-

ginia council letters and papers relating to Governor Hamilton. Hamilton and others were tried and convicted of inciting the Indians to unaccustomed cruelties, of sending detachments of them against the frontiers, and of giving standing rewards for scalps. They were sentenced to be put in irons and confined in the dungeons of the public jail. "The expedition," wrote Jefferson, "will have an important bearing ultimately in establishing our northwestern boundary."

## CHAPTER XLVI.

### STONY POINT AND PAUL JONES.

**328. At Newport.** — Near the close of July, 1778, an attack was planned upon the British army at Newport. General Sullivan was in command of the land forces, aided by Generals Greene and Lafayette, with ten thousand troops. An attack against the British fleet was made by Count D'Estaing. While the siege was in progress, an additional British fleet approached, and D'Estaing sailed out to give them battle. A severe storm arose, which separated the French vessels from the British fleet, and D'Estaing felt obliged to put into Boston for repairs. Sullivan with his forces retired to the northward. There, upon the highlands of Portsmouth, he was attacked by the British, but he repulsed them. The French fleet, after refitting at Boston, sailed for the West Indies. The British fleet soon followed to protect their possessions in those islands.

**329. Raids.** — In May, 1779, the British conducted marauding expeditions in various quarters. They made raids into Virginia, destroying much property, both public and private, in Norfolk, Portsmouth, and the surrounding country. General Clinton in person led an expedition up the Hudson. He occupied and garrisoned Stony Point and Verplanck's Point, and returned to New York. In July General Tryon raided through Connecticut, and burned East Haven, Fairfield, and Norwalk, plundering and ravaging the country bordering on the sound.

**330. Wayne captures Stony Point.** — On the morning of the 16th of July, the Americans performed one of the most gallant and suc-

cessful operations of the whole war. Washington could not regard with indifference the British occupation of any points upon the Hudson. He therefore sent General Anthony Wayne to capture Stony Point. This exploit was a military expedition of characteristic boldness and distinguished success. The plan was made by Washington, and its details were faithfully carried out by General Wayne. In the assault upon the works the troops placed their sole dependence on the bayonet, and the watchword which every man shouted was, "The fort is ours." Wayne led one of the columns in person, and was wounded in the head, but still went forward. Two columns gained the centre of the works at nearly the same moment. The number of killed and wounded was small on either side, but the whole British force of nearly six hundred was made prisoners. In this action the American loss was only fifteen killed and eighty-three wounded. The stores captured were valued at more than one hundred and fifty thousand dollars. These were divided among the troops. The Americans destroyed the works and returned to their camp.

**General Anthony Wayne** was one of the most active and conspicuous characters of the war. His bravery gained him the sobriquet of "Mad Anthony," but he was discreet and cautious, fruitful in expedients, quick in decision, and prompt in execution. He participated in a long line of engagements, from the very beginning of the war to its close. He raised a regiment in September, 1775, was made colonel in January, 1776, and brigadier-general in 1777. For his brilliant achievement at Stony Point, Congress gave him a vote of thanks and a gold medal.

In early life he was a farmer and land surveyor. He served in the Pennsylvania Assembly, and was a member of the Pennsylvania Convention that ratified the United States Constitution. It will readily be seen how active his life must have been, when it is considered that though engaged in so many battles, and occupying such various honorable positions, yet he died at less than fifty-two years of age.

**331. Paulus Hook.** — On the 19th of August, Major Henry Lee, with a force of four hundred Americans, captured Paulus Hook, where Jersey City now stands. The British works were stormed at half-past two o'clock in the morning, the bayonet only being used, and not a shot fired. The Americans lost twenty men, and the British fifty killed and wounded, and more than one hundred and fifty prisoners.

**332. Springfield.** — During the summer of 1780, General Knyphausen, then in command at New York City, made constant forays, and in June advanced into New Jersey with five thousand men, hoping to surprise General Washington in his fortified camp. On hearing of Clinton's success in the South (¶ 342), he waited for his return.

June 23d Clinton united with him in the attack, and a battle ensued at Springfield. The American forces, under Greene, Maxwell, and Stark, were successful. This was the last invasion of New Jersey by the British.

**333. Indians and Tories.** — In New York State, horrible depredations had been committed by the Indians and Tories. To put a stop to these atrocities, General Sullivan, with a force of five thousand men, was sent against them. A severe battle was fought where the city of Elmira now stands, and the enemy completely routed. Sullivan then laid waste the Indian country as far as the Genesee River. This successful expedition effectually stopped the depredations and atrocities of the Indians in that quarter.

John Paul Jones.

**334. Paul Jones.** — During the summer of **1779**, a small squadron was fitted out at Paris by the American commissioners, and placed under command of Commodore Paul Jones. He was a Scotch American, and a man of great bravery. September 23d, 1779, while cruising with his ship, the "Bon Homme Richard," off the coast of Scotland, he fell in with the British ship "Serapis," and captured her after a most desperate fight. The "Richard" carried but forty guns, many of which were unserviceable. The "Serapis" was strongly manned and carried forty-four guns. Having great superiority in strength she engaged the "Richard" without hesitation. After a contest of an hour and one-half within musket shot, Paul

Jones ran up alongside his adversary and hooked her anchor to his own quarter. Jones could only use his smaller guns, but he threw combustible materials into every part of the "Serapis," which again and again set her on fire. After a two hours' terrific conflict the "Serapis" struck her flag. Jones raised his colors on the captured frigate, and transferred his men to her, because his own vessel was so damaged that it went down. The crew of the "Serapis" numbered three hundred and eighty, of whom three hundred and six were killed or wounded.

**Admiral Paul Jones** should be remembered by every school-boy as a bold, daring naval officer, who did great service to the American cause, and whose career was singularly checkered. When a mere boy he went to sea, and before he was eighteen, he commanded a vessel to the West Indies. Congress commissioned him first lieutenant in the navy on the 22d of December, 1775. It was at this time that he changed his name. His original name was John Paul, but in gratitude to General Jones, of North Carolina, who had strongly recommended his appointment by Congress, he assumed his name. In February, 1778, he received from Count D'Orvilliers the first salute ever paid to the American flag by a foreign man-of-war. On the English coast he captured "The Drake," a ship of superior force, which had been sent out especially to take him. After the capture of the "Serapis" he received from Louis XVI. the order of military merit and a sword of honor, and Congress ordered a gold medal to be struck in honor of his achievements. After the war he distinguished himself in the Russian service as rear admiral, was made a vice-admiral, and a knight of Saint Ann. Later he resigned his commission and removed to Paris, where he died. The Star Spangled Banner, it is said, was first displayed by him on board the "Alfred," in the Delaware. "In his character the tenderness and sensibility of a woman were united to the daring and courage of a hero."

**335. Another Gloomy Period.** — The last months in the year 1779 constitute another gloomy period. The assistance of the French had proved less effective than was anticipated. Several important plans of operation had failed. The conditions surrounding the army and the financial affairs of the country were depressing. On the other hand, Great Britain was laying plans for more vigorous operations. Parliament had proposed to enlist more than one hundred thousand men in the land and naval service of the country. It could not be foreseen that within two years the final overthrow of the British army at Yorktown would prepare the way for the recognition of our independence. Before that event, however, still further gloom must result from additional disasters in the South.

A Revolutionary Musket.

# CHAPTER XLVII.

## WAR IN THE SOUTH.

**336. Clinton sends a British Force South.** — Clinton determined, in 1778, to transfer aggressive operations to the South. Accordingly, in November, he sent Colonel Campbell with two thousand men and a fleet under Admiral Parker against Savannah. That city was defended by less than one thousand men, under General Robert Howe. The attack was made by the British on the 29th of December. In this battle the Americans displayed great bravery, but were absolutely overpowered by the superior numbers of the British, and were obliged to abandon the city. The British now had a force of nearly four thousand men, with which, aided by many Tories from that section, they completely overran the lower parts of Georgia. The American force was composed principally of militia, and was much inferior in numbers to the British. It was commanded by General Lincoln, a skilful officer, who had shown great bravery and had won distinction in Northern campaigns. On the first of February, by orders from General Prevost, Colonel

Campbell occupied Augusta. Prevost sent another expedition against Port Royal Island, in South Carolina. Here the British were defeated by General Moultrie with considerable loss.

**337. Brier Creek.** — The British soon after retired from Augusta, and the force at Savannah retreated to Hudson's Ferry. On the 3d of March, General Prevost attacked and defeated the American force of two thousand men under General Ashe, at Brier Creek. The Americans lost three hundred and forty killed, wounded, and prisoners. The British loss was inconsiderable. For a time the British held possession of all the lower portion of Georgia, but General Lincoln by no means gave up the contest. He at once exerted himself to increase his force. By the middle of April, his army numbered five thousand men.

**338. Fruitless Expedition to Georgia.** — With four thousand men Lincoln set out for Georgia, leaving one thousand at Charleston, under General Moultrie. The British general, informed of this movement, immediately advanced by rapid marches upon Charleston, and forced Moultrie to retreat. This movement compelled Lincoln to abandon his expedition and return to the defence of Charleston. As Lincoln approached, Prevost withdrew, and soon after established the main body of his army at Savannah. It was now the 20th of June, and the hot weather and unhealthy season obliged both armies to remain inactive until September.

**339. Attack on Savannah.** — In September, 1779, the Americans laid siege to Savannah. Count D'Estaing appeared with a French fleet and six thousand troops. Lincoln with the American forces moved up and joined the French. While the siege was progressing, a small force under Captain John White, of Georgia, captured, by a skilful stratagem, five British vessels with one hundred and thirty stand of arms, and more than one hundred British soldiers. The British force could not long have stood the siege, but D'Estaing became impatient at the delay and insisted upon an immediate assault. This took place on the 9th of October, and the combined assaulting party of French and Americans was signally repulsed, with great slaughter. With the exception of Bunker Hill, there was probably no action in the whole war where so great a loss was received in so short a time. The British lost in killed, wounded, and missing about one hundred and fifty. The total American loss was

probably between four hundred and five hundred. The American army retired to Charleston, and the French fleet sailed away to the West Indies. America mourned the loss in this battle of the noble Pole, Count Pulaski, and the gallant Sergeant Jasper.

**340. Expedition against South Carolina.** — The principal portion of the American army was in winter-quarters at Morristown, New Jersey. The winter was an unusually severe one. New York Bay was frozen over with ice thick enough to bear the heaviest artillery. Washington with difficulty saved his army from starvation. The withdrawal of the French fleet from the American coast left the Southern States so exposed that Clinton decided to send another expedition against South Carolina, and to lead the force himself. In December, having withdrawn his army from Newport, he set sail with seven thousand of his best troops for the south, and landed on John's Island, below Charleston. He left at New York a force deemed sufficient to hold that important strategic point, under command of General Knyphausen.

**341. Lincoln in Command at Charleston.** — The small force of patriots defending Charleston under the command of General Lincoln was one day surprised to see the whole British fleet, in command of Admiral Arbuthnot, sail into Charleston harbor. Lincoln's force was by no means of sufficient strength to resist successfully so large an army, but at the earnest request of the citizens he determined to remain and take the consequences. The slow and cautious advance of the British enabled him to strengthen his works, and add to his garrison from the militia of the surrounding country. The British laid siege for two months. The army was hemmed in on all sides, but defended itself against a force more than double its own. Congress was powerless to reinforce Lincoln, and apparently failed to appreciate the importance of the crisis.

**Fort Moultrie.** — Clinton's attack on Charleston, in 1780, was not the first direct experience that that city had had with the war. In the spring of 1776, a large force under General Clinton, with a fleet under Sir Peter Parker, attacked the city. On June 28th, the British began the bombardment, but neither shell nor ball injured the soft palmetto logs of Fort Sullivan. Colonel Moultrie, in command of the fort, effectually returned the fire, and, with the aid of wind and tide, which prevented a hasty retreat, destroyed three vessels of the fleet. The British army was equally unsuccessful in its attempt to attack the fort in its rear. At night the vessels withdrew and sailed for New York. This victory, coming soon after the evacuation of Boston, was of great value to the Americans. Fort Sullivan was afterwards called Fort Moultrie, in honor of its gallant commander.

**342. Lincoln surrenders.** — At last surrender was inevitable, and on the 12th of May, 1780, Lincoln capitulated and the British took possession of the town. The American loss in prisoners was two thousand regular troops, and about three thousand militia. Clinton immediately sent detachments into the interior, to Camden, to Ninety-Six, and to Augusta. The Tories accepted British protection, while the patriots largely withdrew into North Carolina. Clinton left Cornwallis in command and sailed for New York. The British troops scattered themselves over the Southern country, and systematically collected plunder and spoils of all kinds which were sold for the benefit of the army. Vessels loaded with rich supplies taken from the inhabitants were sent abroad. Patriot bands here and there protected themselves in the swamps, sallying forth to harass the British troops on their marauding expeditions.

Lord Cornwallis.

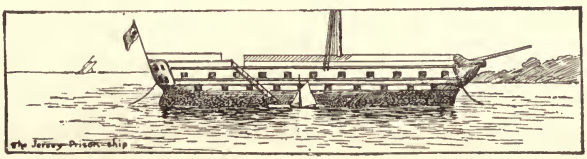
**343. Partisan Leaders.**—These brave bands were commanded by noted patriots, such as Marion, Sumter, Pickens, and Lee. In August Sumter gained a victory over the British and Tories at Hanging Rock. The battle lasted four hours, and the loss was severe, especially to the British. The Americans lost about one hundred. Among the partisans who were present and injured in this fight was an orphan boy of Scotch-Irish descent, named Andrew Jackson, the future president of the United States.

**344. The Battle of Camden.** — Ten days later, **August 16th, 1780**, General Gates, having been assigned to command in the South, engaged Cornwallis near Camden, each army seeking to surprise the other. The British forces were inferior in numbers to the Americans, but many of the latter were undisciplined militia. Gates was routed, in spite of the bravery of De Kalb and his command. De Kalb fell, pierced with many wounds. Whole regiments were literally cut to pieces. The British captured several pieces of artillery, two thou-

sand muskets, the entire baggage train, and one thousand prisoners. It had been Washington's intention to assign General Greene to the command of the Southern army, but Congress gave the position to General Gates. The battle of Camden clearly showed that Gates was not the man for the place.

**345. Battle of King's Mountain.** — The continued marauding expeditions of the British had driven the patriots almost to desperation. On October 7th was fought a notable battle at King's Mountain. Colonel Tarleton had become notorious for his inhuman butchery of prisoners and his extreme barbarity. Apparently he intended to give no quarter. "Tarleton's quarter" became a significant byword throughout the South. That whole territory was scoured by marauding bands under Tarleton and Ferguson. Ferguson took refuge on King's Mountain, which is one of a series of rocky summits partly within the Southern boundaries of North Carolina. Here he was attacked by an "impromptu, unpaid army of volunteers, hastily combined for the purpose of ridding the country of Ferguson's corps." Among the American officers were several remarkable characters, such as Colonel Isaac Shelby and Colonel John Sevier, from Tennessee; Colonel James Williams, of South Carolina; Colonel Benjamin Cleaveland and Colonel Charles McDowell, of North Carolina; and Colonel William Campbell, of Virginia. The entire American force did not exceed sixteen hundred men. They approached the hill in front and by both flanks. The battle was exceedingly fierce, but quick and decisive. Three times British bayonets pushed the Americans back step by step to the foot of the hill. Ferguson was killed, and the British surrendered after desperate fighting. The victory of the Americans was complete. The British killed and wounded numbered nearly five hundred, and the rest were taken prisoners.

> "'T was the meeting of eagles and lions,
> 'T was the rushing of tempests and waves,
> Insolent triumph 'gainst patriot defiance,
> Born freemen 'gainst sycophant slaves.
> Scotch Ferguson sounding his whistle,
> As from danger to danger he flies,
> Feels the moral that lies in Scotch thistle,
> With its 'touch me who dare!' and he dies."
>
> WILLIAM GILMORE SIMMS.



# CHAPTER XLVIII.

## ARNOLD'S TREASON.

**346. Benedict Arnold.** — Now we must have the record of one of the most painful events in the whole war. It is the story of the infamous treachery of Benedict Arnold. He had proved himself brave and efficient, and a skilled military leader. Immediately after the battle of Lexington he raised a company of volunteers and marched to Cambridge. He was with Ethan Allen at the capture of Ticonderoga. At the head of one thousand men, he had heroically endured the sufferings of that terrible winter's march through the wilderness of Maine to Quebec, where he had formerly traded, intending to capture the city. Besides participating in other battles, he commanded the left wing at Stillwater, and fought with desperate courage at Bemis Heights, really winning the day. He was in command of the American forces at Philadelphia in 1778–79. Here he displayed extravagance, rapacity, and dishonesty. Tried by court-martial, he was mildly sentenced to receive a reprimand from Washington. The evidence indicates that months before this he had begun his treasonable overtures to the enemy.

**347. Sought the Command of West Point.** — He purposely sought the command of West Point, which had been fortified by Kosciusko, with the deliberate intention of betraying that important post into the hands of Sir Henry Clinton. Early in the autumn of **1780** his plans were discovered by the capture of Major André, and West Point was saved.

**348. Major André.** — André was a noble officer of high character, assistant adjutant-general to Clinton. At Arnold's request he was appointed by Clinton to meet him and arrange the details for the capture of West Point. He went up the Hudson and met Arnold secretly on the night of September 21st, and before morning they completed their plans. André received sketches of the fortifications, with a detailed account of the forces, where they were stationed, and such other information as was needful. Meantime the British vessel, the "Vulture," which carried him up the river, having been

fired upon, had dropped down stream. This circumstance obliged André to make his way back to New York by land. Fortified with passes from Arnold in the name of John Anderson, he started on horseback upon his return. He passed the American lines in safety.

**349. André arrested.** — At Tarrytown, September 23d, three militiamen at the roadside halted him, his manner having excited their suspicion. They searched him and found his papers secreted in his stockings, under his feet. He offered them his horse, watch, purse, and any sum of gold they might name, to release him. They were poor men. They knew the worth of money, but they were incorruptible patriots and despised a bribe. Unlike Arnold, who for gold sold his good name and betrayed his country, these three men declared they would not release André for ten thousand guineas.

The three men who arrested André were John Paulding, David Williams, and Isaac Van Wart. Congress rewarded these patriots by silver medals, inscribed on one side "Fidelity," and on the other, "*Vincit Amor Patriæ*," and pensions of two hundred dollars a year for life.

**350. Arnold escapes.** — Arnold was notified of André's capture, through the stupidity of an officer, who thought the arrest important, but failed to realize Arnold's part in the transaction. He mounted his horse in haste, rode to a wild spot at the river-side where he had secreted his boat, jumped into it, and was rowed out to the "Vulture." He held the rowers of his boat as prisoners, but, with a finer sense of honor, Clinton released them at New York. He joined the British army, was made brigadier-general, and received a reward of £6,315 for his treachery, and Mrs. Arnold was subsequently granted a pension of £500 per annum. But he justly merited the contempt of everybody, and the name of "Arnold the Traitor" will perpetuate his infamy through the ages. André was tried, condemned, and hanged as a spy. Every effort was made to save him from this ignominious fate, but, though all had great personal respect for him as an honorable soldier, yet the American cause required the execution of the sad sentence.

**351. Character of Arnold.** — Arnold's treachery stands by itself in the annals of the history of all time, an emphatic warning to mankind against reckless selfishness, perfidy, immoral extravagance, and a total loss of upright moral character. When a boy, Arnold was mischievous, bold, headlong, and turbulent. He was

apprenticed and ran away. He enlisted as a soldier and deserted. He became a bankrupt with the reputation of dishonesty. After joining the continental army, he showed everywhere great bravery and good generalship, and was highly esteemed by Washington. While in command at Philadelphia he became seriously involved in debt, and this financial embarrassment, together with an inordinate and selfish ambition for promotion, which he considered had not been accorded to him by Congress as rapidly as he deserved, induced in his mind, so utterly devoid of the true principles of rectitude, a willingness to sell his reputation and his country for British gold and military preferment.

**John Champe**, in his desertion and escape, showed himself worthy of the trust placed in him. His absence was discovered within half an hour, and Lee informed of it. A pursuing party was quickly put upon the road, with orders to take him alive, if possible, but to shoot him if he resisted. All night the pursued and pursuers were pushing on for New York. In the early dawn Champe was descried not more than half a mile in front. He at the same time discovered his pursuers. Both parties instantly put their horses to the top of their speed. Champe now changed his course and rode directly for the river, where two British galleys were anchored. He threw himself off his horse, pushed across the marsh, plunged into the water, and called upon the galleys for help. The pursuing party fired upon him without effect, and returned with his captured horse.

After Champe reached Virginia, it was some months before he secured an opportunity to escape. He made his way into North Carolina, where he joined his old corps under Major, now Lieutenant-Colonel, Lee. He was sent to General Washington, who promptly gave him discharge papers, lest he might by chance fall into the enemy's hands, when, if recognized, he would be sure to die upon the gallows.

**352. Washington plans to capture Arnold.** — As soon as Washington knew of the defection of Arnold, he promptly devised a plan to secure Arnold's immediate capture, selecting John Champe, the sergeant-major of Henry Lee's cavalry, for the purpose. The plan was that Champe should pretend to desert and join the British in New York, secure a position near Arnold, observe his habits, and watch for an opportunity to capture him. Champe joined Arnold's legion and soon arranged a scheme for his capture. Arnold was in the habit of walking in his garden every night about midnight, and with the assistance of one man Champe was to step quickly through the fence, boards being loosened for this purpose, place a gag in Arnold's mouth, and carry him away through the back alleys of the city to the river, representing him as a drunken soldier whom they were conveying to the guard-house. They would then row to the Jersey shore, and turn him over to Lee and a party of dragoons. The whole scheme failed, for a singular reason. On the day preceding the night fixed upon for the execution of the

plot, Arnold had removed his headquarters to prepare for an expedition which he was fitting out against Virginia. Thus it happened that John Champe instead of crossing the Hudson that night was placed on board one of Arnold's transports, from which he did not depart until he landed with Arnold and his legion in Virginia.

**353. Arnold a British Officer.** — Arnold's subsequent course, to the close of the war, was infamous in the extreme. In December he sailed for Virginia with sixteen hundred men. He set Richmond on fire, destroyed other property in the vicinity, and spent the spring and summer of 1781 in making raids through the State, burning and pillaging the country. In September he was commissioned to make an invasion of Connecticut, his native State. He captured Fort Griswold, opposite New London, and indiscriminately butchered the garrison after it had surrendered. He burned the town of New London, utterly forgetful of the fact that he was almost within sight of his own birthplace. This was his last exploit in his native country. Here in reality he closed his military and public career.

**Robert Morris.** — The American Commissary Department had never been well managed. Abuses had crept in. Frauds were not uncommon. The soldiers were suffering for want of clothing and proper provisions, and their pay had been kept back for months. Mutinies among the soldiers frequently took place, though they were promptly suppressed by the use of loyal troops. These troubles, however, produced good results. They aroused both the States and the Congress to make greater exertions to raise money to pay the soldiers, and to provide for their necessities. One of the strong men of the time was Robert Morris, a wealthy merchant of Philadelphia. He was appointed financial agent for the government, and it was largely through his efforts and ability that existing difficulties were overcome, and the army put in such condition as would give us the final victory.

**354. Arnold's Subsequent Life.** — After the war was ended he went to England, and lived about twenty years, shunned and despised by every one. At one time Lord Surrey had risen in the House of Commons to speak, when, seeing Arnold in the gallery, he pointed to him and exclaimed, "I will not speak while that man is in the house." A well-known officer in the American army who had known Arnold in early life was in London. Arnold called at his door, and sent in his name. "Tell the gentleman I am not at home," said the officer, "and never shall be for General Arnold."

# CHAPTER XLIX.

## THE LAST CAMPAIGNS

**355. General Greene.** — General Greene was appointed to succeed General Gates in command of the army at the South. He found, on taking command, that his force was very small, and was composed of half-clothed, half-starved men. Nevertheless, he at once sent General Morgan with a portion of the troops across the mountains, so as to threaten Ninety-Six, as well as the line of small posts in the rear of the British army. This was good strategy, but it left him with not more than two thousand men for immediate service. Cornwallis despatched Tarleton to strike Morgan while he himself should advance upon Greene. Morgan took position at the Cowpens, in an angle of the Broad River, where swiftness and depth of current made retreat impossible, and secreted his mounted men behind a hill in the rear. He then deliberately planned to destroy Tarleton's "hated" troops.

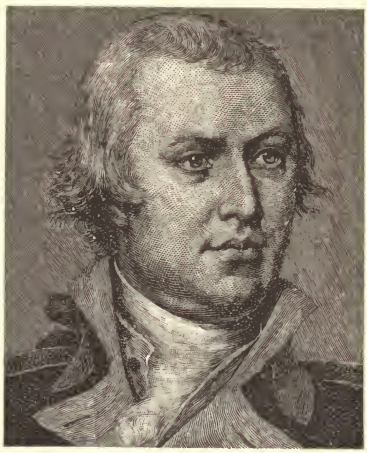
**Nathaniel Greene**, a native of Rhode Island, was born in 1742 and died in 1786. He was a farmer and blacksmith. While working at his forge, he studied Euclid's geometry. Having natural military tastes, he carefully perused Cæsar's Commentaries, Marshal Turenne's works, Sharp's "Military Guide," Blackstone's Commentaries, and the works of Watts, Locke, and similar authors. He was also a member of a militia company, which had as instructor a British sergeant who had deserted at Boston. He was a member of the Rhode Island Legislature from 1770 until he took command of the Southern army. After the battle of Lexington, he led to Cambridge three regiments of militia from Rhode Island, of which he had been appointed brigadier-general. He was distinguished at Trenton, at Brandywine, and at Germantown. But his great success was in managing, with great skill, under adverse circumstances, the Southern campaign against a superior force. His celebrated retreat from South Carolina across North Carolina into Virginia won for him a high rank in the estimation of military men. Congress presented him with two pieces of ordnance taken from the British army, "as a public testimony of the wisdom, fortitude, and military skill which distinguished his command in the Southern department." The State of Georgia presented him with a fine plantation near Savannah, to which he removed his family in the autumn of 1785.

**356. Battle of Cowpens.**—When Tarleton advanced through an open wood, **January 11th, 1781**, the first American lines opened fire, but then, as instructed, fell back and retired to the rear. The British, supposing this to be a genuine retreat, pushed on in some confusion and were confronted by the continentals. Tarleton spurred around the American left, in pursuit of the retiring militia, but an impetuous

charge of the cavalry scattered his loose column and put it to flight. The Americans were entirely victorious, losing but twelve men killed and about sixty wounded, while the British lost one hundred and twenty-nine killed and wounded, and six hundred prisoners. The capture of two cannon, eight hundred muskets, thirty-five wagon-loads of supplies, and one hundred horses was a timely acquisition to the patriot army.

**Tarleton** barely escaped capture at the battle of Cowpens. He was wounded by a blow from the sword of Colonel William A. Washington. Some time after this battle Colonel Tarleton remarked to a company of South Carolina ladies, "I have been told that Colonel Washington is very illiterate, and can scarcely write his name." "But, Colonel," replied one of the ladies, "he can at least *make his mark*." Tarleton rejoined that he would like very much to see Colonel Washington. Upon which the lady instantly replied, "You might have had that pleasure, Colonel, if you had looked behind you at the battle of Cowpens."

**357. Battle of Guilford Court House.**— Greene slowly retreated into Virginia, and used every effort to recruit his little army. In March, at the head of a force of five thousand men, he advanced into North Carolina to meet the British under Cornwallis. On the fifteenth a bloody battle was fought at Guilford Court House. The loss in killed and wounded was about equal for the two armies; but Greene retired in order and took up his camp a few miles away. Cornwallis remained in possession of the field, and therefore claimed the victory. On the twenty-fifth of April another engagement took place at Hobkirk Hill, where each army lost about two hundred and fifty men, but Greene was finally compelled to leave the field.



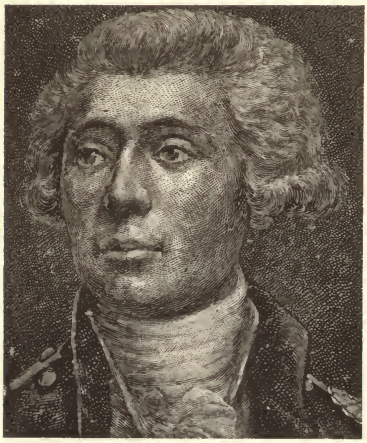
General Nathaniel Greene.
(After a miniature on ivory.)

**358. Battle of Eutaw Springs.**— After the battle of Guilford Court House, Cornwallis retired to Wilmington. On due consideration, he decided to march northward into Virginia, and thus, as he hoped, draw Greene out of the Carolinas. Greene, however, moved South at once, and began the process of winning back the Southern States. Sumter and Marion kept up a continuous warfare during May and

June, captured Orangeburg, Fort Mott, Fort Granby, Fort Cornwallis, Georgetown, Augusta, and besieged Ninety-Six. In September Greene fought the last battle of the war, in the far South, at Eutaw Springs. His attack upon the enemy was at first successful, but the men stopped for plunder and the British returned to the attack. The British retreated during the night, so that, in all its effects, the battle was a victory for the Americans.

**Mrs. Rebecca Mott** was the owner of a large, new private mansion, around which a stockade, called Fort Mott, had been built. Here the British were defending themselves. Colonel Lee told Mrs. Mott, who at this time was living in a cottage without the fort, that if he could burn her fine house the British would be obliged to surrender. With quick decision this patriotic woman replied that she should be only too well pleased to perform any service for her country, and immediately furnished Lee with an East Indian bow and arrows, with which combustible matter was shot over the house, and the building was fired. The British garrison was then forced to surrender.

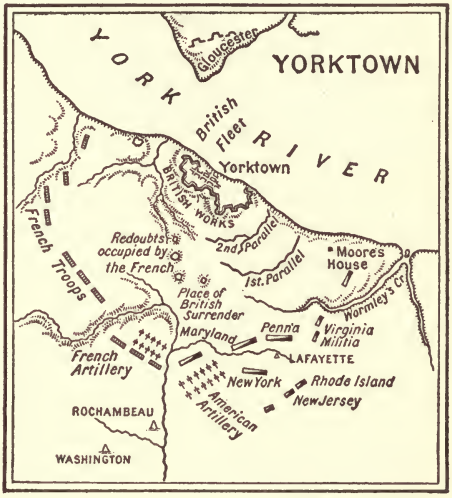
**359. Cornwallis in Virginia.** — Cornwallis, after starting north from Wilmington, hastened his march, and on May 20th reached Petersburg, Virginia. Washington had sent Lafayette south, with about twelve hundred continentals. He took up his headquarters in Virginia. Cornwallis endeavored to force an engagement, but the prudent marquis would not hazard a battle with a force so superior to his own. The British army therefore continued its marauding expeditions, destroying property both public and private, until it had crossed the Virginia peninsula, and had gathered its whole force at Yorktown.



**Lafayette.**
(From the Bartholdi statue in Union Square, New York City.)

**360. Washington's Plans.** — Meanwhile, Washington threatened New York, controlling all land approaches, and pressed so closely upon the British lines, by day and night, that Clinton sent messengers to Cornwallis to announce that he was in a state of siege, and must have immediate reinforcements. Washington determined to unite all available troops and crush Cornwallis. Still keeping up appearances before New York, he moved his main army through New Jersey, and even reached Wilmington on the Delaware

before Clinton suspected his design. A French fleet under Count de Grasse was on its way to the Chesapeake. It arrived August 30th, and on the 3d of September, Count de St. Simon joined Lafayette with over three thousand troops. On the 14th of September the commander-in-chief reached Lafayette's headquarters at Williamsburg.




**361. At Yorktown.** — September 29th, the combined armies appeared before Yorktown. Cornwallis had fortified the town and also Gloucester Point, across the river. He was surrounded, and must surrender or fight his way out. De Grasse prevented his escape by sea. The situation was in every way favorable to the Americans. The real siege began by a bombardment, October 9th, and from this time the combined army made a continuous advance. A hundred cannon were concentrated upon the British fortifications, with such effect as to dismount every gun. Finally, Cornwallis determined to transport his entire force across the river and retreat by way of Gloucester, breaking through the French forces stationed in the rear of that place, with the hope of reaching New York. On the night of the 16th of October, one division of his troops had crossed the river when a severe storm arose which dispersed his boats, and utterly thwarted his purpose. No alternative now remained but to capitulate.

**Yorktown.**—The spot where Cornwallis surrendered his army is sacred to American patriotism, and a monument has been erected there to commemorate the victory. Eighty years later Yorktown was again made famous by its Confederate fortifications under General Magruder, and its siege by the Federal army under McClellan. In 1881 there was an appropriate celebration at Yorktown of the one hundredth anniversary of the surrender of Cornwallis, at which the late Honorable Robert C. Winthrop of Massachusetts delivered the oration.

**362. The British surrender.** — Accordingly, on the **19th of October, 1781**, the British army surrendered to Washington, and the fleet

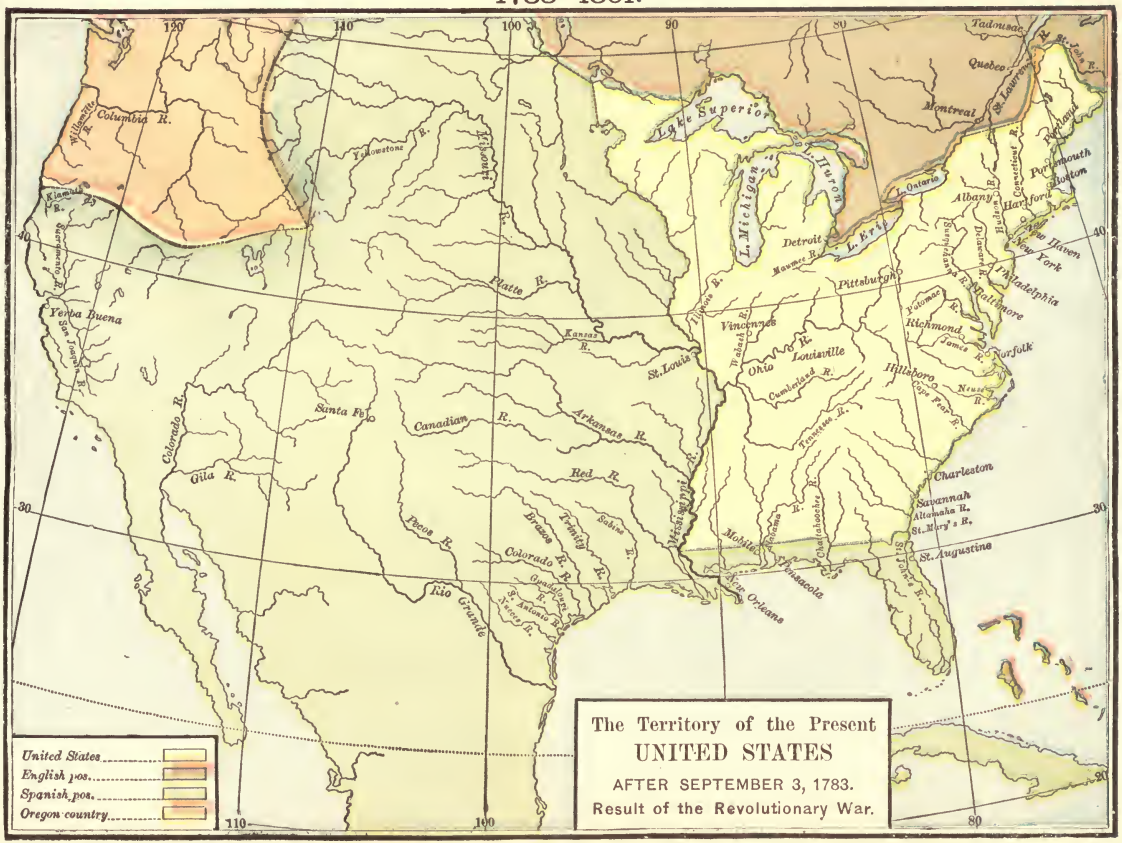
to De Grasse. The combined French and American armies numbered sixteen thousand men. The British force numbered seven thousand in addition to nine hundred seamen. The loss of the allies was two hundred and eighty-four, and that of the British, five hundred and fifty-two. The British force, under arms, marched to a plain in the rear of Yorktown to surrender. Cornwallis, worn out, mortified, and sick, deputed General O'Hara to tender his sword upon that occasion. It will be remembered that brave General Lincoln had been obliged a few months before to surrender his sword to a junior officer at Charleston (¶ 342). Washington deputed him to receive the sword of Cornwallis. This was a piece of poetic justice, doubtless not unappreciated by Lincoln.

**363. Clinton Too Late.** — Meanwhile Sir Henry Clinton had embarked a force of seven thousand men at New York to reinforce Cornwallis, but he was too late. The surrender took place five days before he made his appearance off Cape Charles. The news of this decisive victory was received with joyful exultation by the people from one end of the country to the other. Congress passed resolutions thanking the officers and soldiers, and proceeded in a body to church to offer thanks to Almighty God for the triumph. The 13th of December was also observed as a day of national thanksgiving.

## CHAPTER L.

### THE GREAT TREATY OF 1783.

**364. The War must cease.** — Throughout the whole war a large party in England had favored the American cause, but they were in the minority. The people of England, however, were now determined that the war should cease. After the battle of Yorktown no further hostilities of importance took place. In the spring of 1782, the British House of Commons passed strong resolutions against a continuance of the war, and resolved that all persons who proposed its prosecution should be considered public enemies. Lord North, the prime minister, was obliged to resign. The new minister

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favored peace with the colonies, and was willing to consent to their independence.

**365. Preparations for a Treaty of Peace.** — Congress confided the important matter of arranging a peace to five commissioners, — John Adams, Dr. Franklin, John Jay, Thomas Jefferson, and Henry Laurens. The negotiations were to take place at Paris. Mr. Jefferson did not go over, and therefore took no part. Henry Laurens was in ill health, having lately been released from the Tower of London, where he had been long held as a political prisoner. He was able therefore to share but little in the negotiations, and the work fell principally upon Adams, Franklin, and Jay. In our first treaty with France it had been stipulated that, when the time came for a treaty of peace with Great Britain, France should be a party to the treaty, and, when these commissioners were appointed, Congress resolved that the commissioners should "take no step without France."

**366. Territory north of the Ohio River.** — Mr. Oswald, the British commissioner, proposed that our Western boundary should be the Ohio and Mississippi rivers. Franklin objected and said, "If you insist on that, we go back to Yorktown." Oswald yielded the point, and consented that we should have the territory between the Ohio River and the Great Lakes. It soon became apparent that the French government was more willing to help Spain, which was desirous to attach to their province of Louisiana the country north of the Ohio. It became necessary therefore for our commissioners to act independently of France.

**John Adams and King George.** — Two years later, John Adams was appointed the first minister to represent the United States government at the British Court. He was received in person by the king, and in his address to that royal personage he alluded to "the people under different governments" which "have the same language, a similar religion, and kindred blood." The king, in his response, said: "I will be frank with you. . . . I was the last to conform to the separation, but the separation having been made, and having become inevitable, I have always said, as I say now, that I would be the first to meet the friendship of the United States as an independent power."

**367. The Provisional Treaty.** — The provisional treaty was concluded and signed on the 30th of November, **1782**, by Richard Oswald on the part of Great Britain, and Adams, Franklin, Jay, and Laurens on the part of the United States. This was done before Count de Vergennes knew its contents. The definitive treaty, of like import, was signed **September 3d, 1783**, by David Hartley, representing Great Britain, and Adams, Franklin, and Jay for the United

States. The treaty gave us all the territory as far north as the Great Lakes, westward to the Lake of the Woods, thence southward down the Mississippi River, through its whole extent, to latitude 31°.

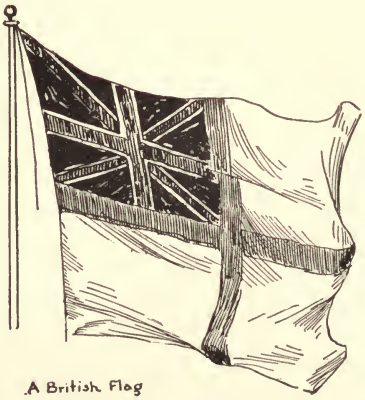
**368. What we owe to Jay, Adams, and Franklin.** — John Jay was largely instrumental in securing to us the great Northwest. John Adams is specially entitled to the credit of obtaining the provision in the treaty that "The United States shall continue to enjoy unmolested the right to take fish of every kind on the Great Bank, and on all other banks of Newfoundland." To Benjamin Franklin the credit is due, through his great influence and popularity, that the treaty as a whole was successfully executed.

**369. Payment to the Loyalists.** — The matter of payment to the Loyalists for their property confiscated could not be undertaken by Congress because it was a matter that concerned the States respectively. Therefore it was "agreed that the Congress shall earnestly recommend to the legislatures of the respective States, to provide for the restitution of such estates, rights, and properties."

## CHRONOLOGY.

**1760.** England — Reign of George III.
**1776.** South Carolina — Fort Moultrie, June 28.
New York — Long Island, August 27.
New York — White Plains, October 28.
New York — Fort Washington, November 16.
New Jersey — Trenton, December 26.
**1777.** New Jersey — Princeton, January 3.
New York — Ticonderoga, July 6.
Rhode Island — Capture of General Prescott, July 9.
New York — British army sails for Philadelphia, July 23.
Vermont — Bennington, August 16.
Pennsylvania — Brandywine, September 11.
New York — Freeman's Farm, or Stillwater, September 19.
Pennsylvania — Philadelphia taken, September 26.
Pennsylvania — Germantown, October 4.
New York — Bemis Heights, October 7.
New York — Surrender of Burgoyne, October 17.

**1777.** Pennsylvania — Articles of confederation adopted by Congress, November 15.
Pennsylvania — Winter-quarters at Valley Forge.
**1778.** France — Treaty and alliance, February 6.
Pennsylvania — British abandon Philadelphia, June 18.
New Jersey — Monmouth, June 28.
Rhode Island — French fleet at Newport, August.
Georgia — Capture of Savannah, December 29.
**1779.** Georgia — Brier Creek, March 3.
New York — Stony Point, July 16.
New Jersey — Paulus Hook, August 19.
English Channel — Paul Jones's victory, September 23.
Georgia — Attack on Savannah, October 9.
**1780.** South Carolina — Charleston taken, May 12.
New Jersey — Springfield, June 23.
South Carolina — Camden, August 16.
New York — Arnold's treason, September.
New Jersey — André executed, October 2.
North Carolina — King's Mountain, October 7.
**1781.** North Carolina — Cowpens, January 17.
North Carolina — Greene's retreat, January and February.
Philadelphia — Articles of confederation go into effect, March 2
North Carolina — Guilford Court House, March 15.
South Carolina — Hobkirk Hill, April 25.
Connecticut — Burning of New London, September 6.
South Carolina — Eutaw Springs, September 8.
Virginia — Surrender of Cornwallis, October 19.
**1782.** Paris — Provisional treaty of peace, November 30.
**1783.** Paris — Treaty of peace, September 3.



A British Flag

# Blackboard Analysis.

- THE NEW NATION
  - **Confederacy**
    - Government needed.
    - Revolutionary Government.
    - Articles of Confederation.
    - Weakness of the Articles
    - Paper Money.
    - Efforts to amend the Articles.
  - **Conventions**
    - Need of Action.
    - Convention of 1786.
    - The Federal Convention, 1787.
    - Illustrious Members.
    - A New Constitution.
  - **Constitution**
    - Adopted by the People.
    - Preamble.
    - Legislative Branch.
    - Powers of Congress.
    - Executive Branch.
    - Judicial Branch.
    - Amendments.

## SECTION VIII.

### THE NEW NATION. 1781–1789.

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# CHAPTER LI.

### ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION.

**370. Committee on Independence.** — As early as June 11th, 1776, the Continental Congress had determined on separation from the mother country (¶ 276). On that day a committee was appointed to draft a "Declaration of Independence." If the colonies separated, a form of national government would be necessary.

**371. Articles of Confederation.** — Consequently on the same day another committee was appointed to prepare "Articles of Confederation and of Perpetual Union." This committee reported such articles soon after its appointment. These articles were from time to time considered by the Congress and variously modified, but for more than a year no agreement could be reached. Finally they were agreed to by Congress, November 15th, **1777.** They were to become binding only when ratified by all the States. Maryland withheld her approval till **March 1st, 1781.** Consequently they did not go into effect until nearly five years after the Declaration of Independence.

**372. Revolutionary Government.** — These articles were the result of the first effort of the States to form a national government. Hitherto the government was merely a revolutionary body, consisting of a committee of the States, called the Continental Congress. This Congress was, in fact, a national government, but it had not taken on a permanent type. The influence of the State governments was largely predominant. Small power was delegated to Congress, while sovereignty was claimed for every State.

**373. Weakness of the Articles of Confederation.** — The articles were equally inefficient in practice and erroneous in theory. They allowed the continuance of the Congress as a single body. The president of the Congress was elected once a year, by the members, from their own number. Each State could send not less than two nor more than seven delegates chosen yearly. Every State, large or small, had one equal vote in the Congress.

**374. What Congress could and could not do.** — The Congress exercised legislative, executive, and judicial functions; there was no chief executive, and no national courts. It had certain powers relating to peace and war, intercourse with foreign nations, post-offices, coining money, and borrowing money; but the assent of nine States was requisite in all matters of importance, and no change of these articles could be made without the agreement thereto of the legislature of every State. Congress could impose no taxes, could not enforce its requisitions on the States, and when troops were needed, it could only ask each State to furnish its quota, and had no powers of compulsion. Indeed, Congress was characterized by little else than power to recommend measures, no one of which it could enforce. It could make treaties, but could not enforce them. It could appoint ambassadors, but could not pay them their salaries. It could borrow money, but had no means of paying it. It could coin money, but could not purchase an ounce of bullion. It could make war and determine how many troops were needed, but it could not raise a single soldier. In short, it could declare everything, and it could do nothing.

**375. Paper Money.** — Both the United States and the several States issued large quantities of paper money during the war. This money was rudely printed and easily counterfeited. The larger the quantity issued, the less likely would the State be to redeem it; hence its value rapidly declined. In 1781, in Philadelphia, a pair of boots sold for $600, handkerchiefs at $100 apiece, calico at $85 a yard. At one time a barrel of flour cost $1,575, and John Adams paid $2,000 for a suit of clothes. A bill of goods, the amount of which was $3,144.50 in currency, was paid by £18 10*s.* in coin, which was equivalent to less than $100 of real value. Congress asked the States to stop issuing paper money. The States refused.

**376. Efforts to amend the Articles.** — At last Congress asked the States to amend the articles; Rhode Island refused, and as the consent of every State was necessary for any change, the measure failed. Congress again asked for additional powers; New York refused, and the measure failed. Congress asked for power to regulate the trade of the country for twenty-five years for national purposes; New Hampshire and North Carolina refused. Congress repudiated the national debt, and the States repudiated the State debts. The country was bankrupt. Congress was absolutely helpless, and confessed her helplessness.

## CHAPTER LII.

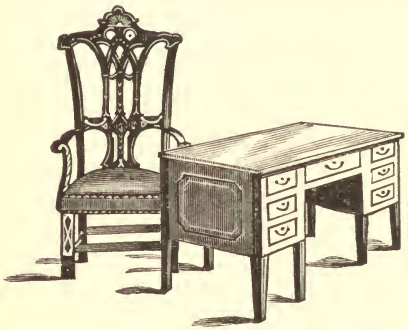
### THE FEDERAL CONVENTION.

**377. Need of Action.** — It was clearly evident that some decisive action must soon be taken; otherwise the government would assuredly go to pieces. Washington wrote to a member of Congress: "You talk, my good sir, of employing influence. *Influence* is not *government.* Let us have a government by which our lives, liberties, and properties will be secured, or let us know the worst at once."

**378. The Convention of 1786.** — In January, 1786, Virginia appointed commissioners to meet with those from other States for the purpose of recommending some steps to help trade and commerce. Only five States sent delegates to this convention, which was held in September, at Annapolis, Maryland. A minority of the States only being represented, the convention did not venture to make recommendations, but prepared a report which was drawn up by Alexander Hamilton, proposing that a general convention should be called to devise such provisions as might render the "Constitution of the Federal government adequate to the exigencies of the Union." This report was sent to the States and to Congress.

**379. Resolution of Congress.** — On the 21st of February, 1787, the Congress adopted the following resolution: —

"RESOLVED, That, in the opinion of Congress, it is expedient that, on the second Monday in May next, a convention of delegates, who shall have been appointed by the several States, be held at Philadelphia, for the sole and express purpose of revising the Articles of Confederation, and reporting to Congress and the several legislatures such alterations and provisions therein as shall, when agreed to in Congress and confirmed by the States, render the Federal Constitution adequate to the exigencies of government and the preservation of the Union."



Chair and Table used by Washington as President of the Federal Convention.

**380. The Convention held.** — In response to this recommendation all the States except Rhode Island appointed delegates to meet in convention at Philadelphia on the 14th of the following May. A quorum was not present until the 25th, when George Washington was unanimously elected President of the Convention. This has always been styled "*The Federal Convention*," and it was this body which framed the present Constitution of the United States.

**381. Its Illustrious Members.** — It contained many of the foremost men in the country. There were fifty-five members in all, most of whom were illustrious for their character and public services. It was undoubtedly the most celebrated gathering of able men ever convened in America. The following description of this convention is given by Prof. Francis Newton Thorpe: —

"Of the thirty-nine members of the convention who subscribed their names to the Constitution, Sherman, Read, Franklin, Wilson, and Robert Morris had signed the Declaration of Independence; Washington became the first and Madison the fourth President of the United States; Rutledge and Ellsworth became Chief-Justices; Gerry became Vice-President, and Hamilton the first Secretary of the Treasury; Johnson was a doctor of laws; Sherman a great lawyer and once a shoemaker; Livingston had been eleven times governor of his State; Wilson, the ablest constitutional lawyer in the convention, famed in four universities, and professor in the

University of Pennsylvania; Gouverneur Morris, who on the last day of the session reduced the Constitution to the form with which we are acquainted; and Franklin, the learned, practical diplomat, an octogenarian, completing a life of splendid fame by the gift of his long political experience to his country at the most critical period of her history."

**The Rising Sun.** — On the carved back of the chair in which Washington sat as President of the Convention throughout its deliberations was the representation of the sun upon the horizon, with its diverging rays shooting upward. When the Convention had finished its labors, and the members, one after another, were affixing their signatures to the Constitution, Benjamin Franklin, who stood rubbing the glasses of his spectacles with his handkerchief, remarked to one standing at his side, "I have often wondered whether that was a setting or a rising sun. I think there is no longer any doubt but that the sun of America is rising."

**382. The Convention frames a New Constitution.** — This convention sat with closed doors in Independence Hall, the very place where the Continental Congress had adopted the Declaration of Independence, for nearly four months, through the heat of the entire summer from May till September. A constitution was agreed upon, **September 17th, 1787.** This result of their labors, though not a perfect instrument, yet is remarkable for its scope, its breadth, its provision for emergencies, and its general adaptation to the times and the country for which it was designed.

## CHAPTER LIII.

### THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

**383. Adopted by the People.** — The new instrument framed by the Federal Convention was called the "Constitution of the United States of America." (Appendix C.) It was to go into effect between the States ratifying it when nine States or two-thirds of the whole number had agreed to it. It was assailed vigorously with all sorts of abuse. Conventions were called in the several States to ratify or reject it. State after State consented to its ratification. The last two States to accept the Constitution were North Carolina and Rhode Island; the former in 1789 and the latter in 1790.

**384. Its Preamble.** — The preamble of the Constitution reads as follows: —

"We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America."

**385. Legislative Power.** — By the Constitution the powers of the government are divided into three classes. The legislative power is delegated to a Congress of the United States, which consists of two branches; a Senate, and a House of Representatives. The Representatives are elected by the people every two years. The Senators are chosen every six years by the legislatures of the several States.

**386. Powers of Congress.** — It is the business of Congress to make laws for the nation. It must not interfere with the rights of the States. Each State has its own laws, made by the two corresponding houses of its State legislature. The powers of Congress are carefully defined in the Constitution, and are as follows: —

1. "To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises to pay the debts and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States."
2. To borrow money.
3. To regulate commerce.
4. To make laws concerning the naturalization of foreigners.
5. To make laws concerning bankruptcies.
6. To coin money and fix the standard of weights and measures.
7. To provide for punishing counterfeiters.
8. To establish post-offices and post-roads.
9. To grant copyrights for books and patents for inventions.
10. To establish United States courts.
11. To punish piracy.
12. To declare war and for this purpose to support armies.
13. To provide and maintain a navy.
14. To call forth the militia of the several States when needed.
15. To organize, arm, and discipline this militia force when called forth.
16. To exercise full control over the District of Columbia, and over post-offices, custom-houses, arsenals, etc., which belong to the nation.
17. And finally, "To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department, or officer thereof."

**387. Executive Power.** — The executive power is vested in a President of the United States, who is elected for a term of four years by electors who are appointed by the people of the several States. Each State has as many electors as it has Senators and Representatives in the National Congress. These electors are chosen on the Tuesday after the first Monday in November. They meet in their respective States on the second Monday in January, and vote for President and Vice-President. These votes are counted by Congress on the second Wednesday in February. The following are the principal duties of the President: —

1. He is Commander-in-Chief of the army and navy of the United States.
2. He has power to grant reprieves and pardon for offences against the United States.
3. He has power to make treaties, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, two-thirds of the Senators concurring.
4. He has power to nominate, for the concurrence of the Senate, ambassadors, ministers to other countries, consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and various other officers of the United States.
5. He may call together the two houses of Congress when he shall deem it necessary.
6. "He shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States."

**388. Judicial Power.** — The judicial power is confided to a series of United States courts, the principal of which are the following:

1. The United States Supreme Court.
2. The United States Circuit Court of Appeals.
3. The United States Circuit Court.
4. The United States District Courts.
5. The United States Court of Claims.
6. The United States Supreme Court for the District of Columbia.
7. The United States Territorial Courts for the several territories.

**389. Amendments.** — This Constitution has now been the supreme law of the land for more than a century. It has not been abrogated or overturned, but fifteen amendments have been added to it, from time to time. We shall hereafter see that under this Constitution the country has grown rapidly in territory and population, and that the Constitution has been to it a source of great prosperity.

# Blackboard Analysis.

**Presidents**

- Washington . . . . . 1789–1797.
- John Adams . . . . . 1797–1801.
- Jefferson . . . . . 1801–1809.
- Madison . . . . . 1809–1817.
- Monroe . . . . . 1817–1825.

**Domestic Affairs**

- Industries.
- Inventions.
- Growth.
- Indian Troubles.
- Conspiracy and Rebellion.
- Slavery.
- Explorations.
- Tariffs.
- Parties.

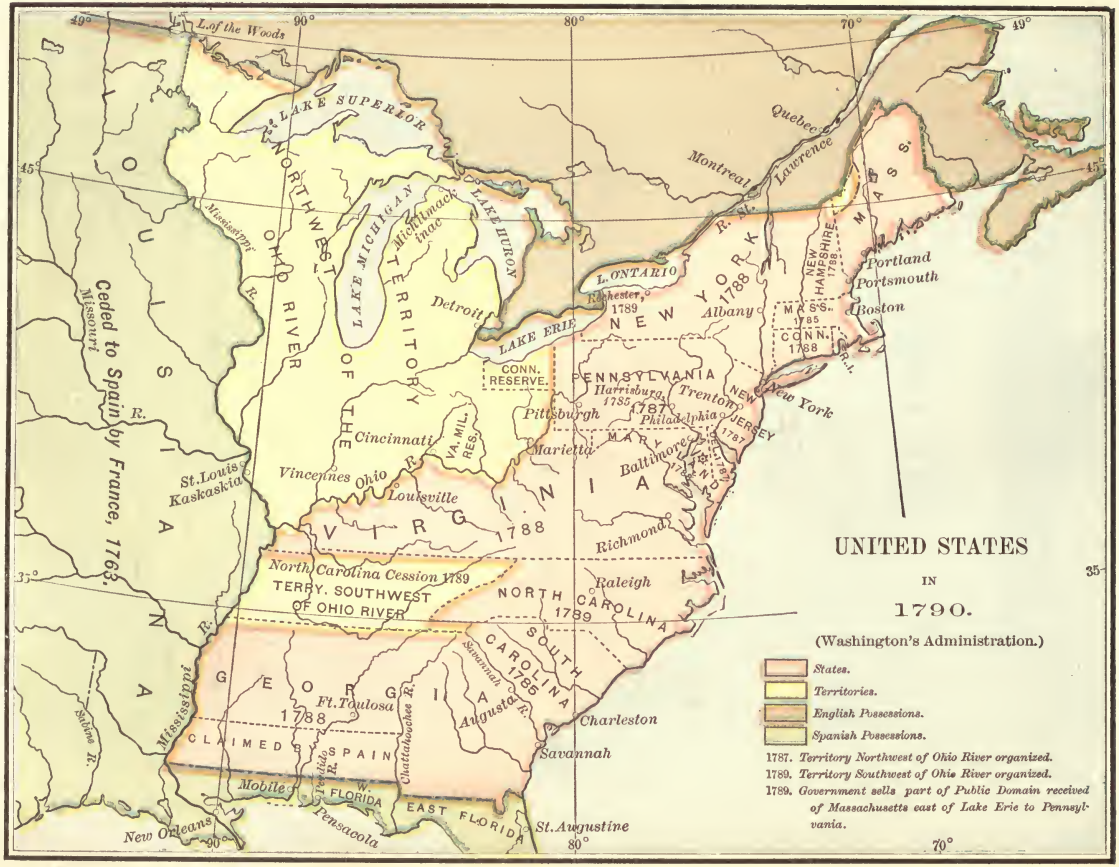
**Foreign Affairs**

- War with Tripoli.
- European Complications.
- Commercial Restrictions.
- War with France.
- War with England.
- Purchase of Louisiana.
- Purchase of Florida.

**States Admitted**

- Vermont . . . . . 1791.
- Kentucky . . . . . 1792.
- Tennessee . . . . . 1796.
- Ohio . . . . . 1803.
- Louisiana . . . . . 1812.
- Indiana . . . . . 1816.
- Mississippi . . . . . 1817.
- Illinois . . . . . 1818.
- Alabama . . . . . 1819.
- Maine . . . . . 1820.
- Missouri . . . . . 1821.

# 1790.

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A Battle-ship of 1812.

# Part III.

## DEVELOPMENT OF THE NATION.

## 1789–1894.

## SECTION IX.

### THE NATION ESTABLISHED. 1789–1825.

## CHAPTER LIV.

### THE NATION'S POPULATION AND INDUSTRIES.

**390. The New Nation.** — The nation was now to begin a new existence under the Constitution. The dawn of a new day had come. The people were interested, hopeful, on tiptoe with anticipation. The general feeling agreed with Franklin that the sun of the nation's prosperity was rising. Many circumstances conspired to render the outlook favorable, though business was much depressed, the people poor, and the industries few.

**391. Population.** — The first census of the United States was taken in 1790, and showed an entire population of less than four millions. The States of New York, Pennsylvania, Illinois, and Ohio have each to-day a population as large as that of the whole country when Washington was inaugurated President. The centre of population was east of Baltimore, on the eastern side of Chesapeake Bay.

**392. Industries.** — The mode of life at that time was in all respects quite primitive. Lamps were almost unknown. Houses were

lighted by tallow candles; the streets of large towns were lighted with dim lanterns. Wood was the sole fuel for heating and cooking. Manufactures were few and coarse in quality. Machine-shops were unknown. The blacksmith's anvil and forge were found here and there. Water-power was scarcely utilized except in saw-mills for sawing boards and in grist-mills for grinding corn and rye. Planing-machines were unknown. Such a thing as a cotton factory or a woolen mill did not exist in the whole land. Wool and flax were prepared and spun at home and woven into cloth for garments for men, women, and children. In the South cotton was raised in small quantities to be carded, spun, and woven by hand.

**393. Country Life.**—Agriculture was the principal industry for the people. The farmer produced almost everything that he needed. Once a year the shoemaker would visit each family, stopping long enough to make up the year's supply of shoes and boots. The tailor in like manner went from house to house to make the necessary garments for the family. Ploughs, wagons, and sleds were of home manufacture. Hunting, trapping, and fishing were the chief sources of animal food. Leathern breeches were not uncommon among mechanics and farmers.

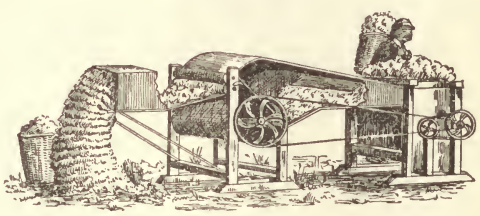
Eli Whitney.

**394. Slaves.** — Slaves were still found in every State except Massachusetts. Nearly one-sixth of the entire population was slave, of which about seven-eighths were in Maryland, Virginia, and the two Carolinas. These were largely employed in raising tobacco, indigo, and rice.

**395. Commerce.** — The small population was scattered over a large territory. There were but few large towns. The greater number of the people lived on their farms. Considerable coasting trade was carried on, especially between the North and the South. Commerce with foreign nations was limited. Rice, cotton, indigo, and tobacco were exported. Manufactured goods of all kinds were imported.

**396. Cotton.** — At about this time a great change took place in the production of cotton and cotton goods. Throughout the Southern States cotton was easily grown, but the process of separating the fibre from the seed was difficult and expensive. It was a slow work, performed only by hand, a common laborer being able to separate only a pound or two a day.

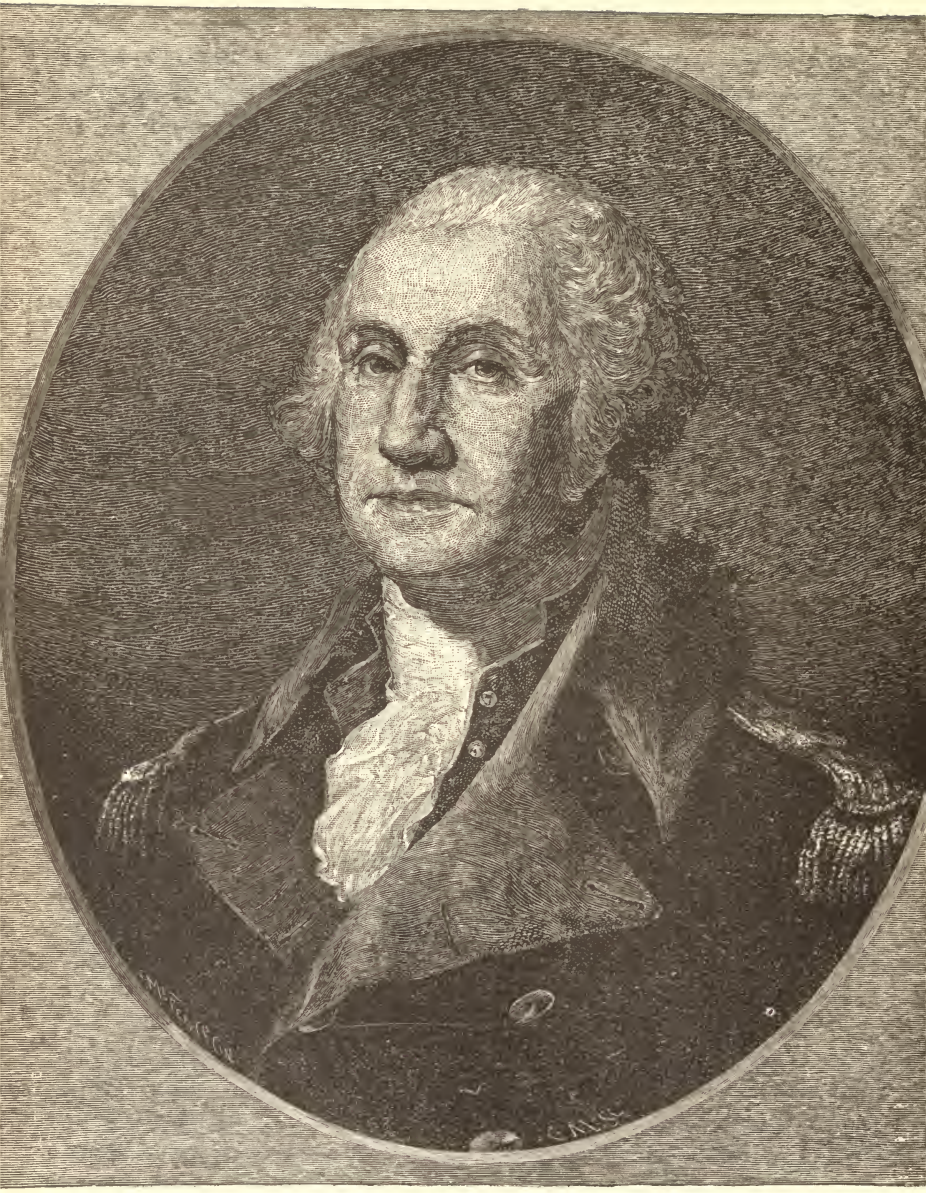
**397. Cotton-Gin.** — In 1792 Eli Whitney, a native of Massachusetts, just graduated from Yale College, went to Georgia as a teacher. He lived with the family of the widow of General Nathaniel Greene (¶ 355). One day Mrs. Greene asked him if he could not invent a machine which would separate the cotton-seed from the fibre. He turned his attention to the problem, and for some months was earnestly engaged in perfecting his invention. The machine was a simple one, and was soon adopted wherever cotton was raised.



The Cotton-Gin.

**398. Its Effects.** — The increase in the production of cotton from this cause was enormous. In 1792 the entire South exported less than one hundred and fifty thousand pounds. Three years later six million pounds were exported. In 1895 the exportation was about six million bales, of four hundred and seventy pounds each. This single invention has exerted an immense influence upon the whole history and prosperity of this country. It is estimated that for the year ending June 30, 1895, raw cotton was exported from the United States to the value of nearly three hundred million dollars.

**399. Cities.** — The great increase in manufactures of all kinds has of late tended to the growth of cities and large towns. In 1790, however, the cities were few and small. The largest cities at that time were Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Charleston. Only one of these had a population of thirty-five thousand souls. The entire population of all the cities at that date was only about three per cent of the whole country. To-day the population of the cities of this country is more than one-fourth of the whole.



George Washington.

(From a painting by Gilbert Stuart in the Boston Museum of Fine Arts.)

# CHAPTER LV.

## WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATIONS. 1789–1797.

**400. The President.** — The new Constitution having been adopted by the requisite number of States, Congress appointed the first Wednesday in January, 1789, as the day for electing presidential electors, and voted that on the first Wednesday in February these electors in the several States should choose a president. It was also voted that on the first Wednesday in March the President should take his seat at New York and operations begin under the Constitution. George Washington was elected the first President by a unanimous vote of all the electors. John Adams was elected Vice-President. Senators and representatives were appointed from eleven States, and, these having met in New York, the new government was put in operation. North Carolina soon after ratified the Constitution, and the next year its adoption by Rhode Island brought all the States once more together.

**George Washington**, the son of Augustine and Mary Washington, was born at Bridge's Creek, Westmoreland County, Virginia, February 22d, 1732, N. S. His great-grandfather, John Washington, a loyalist, emigrated to Virginia during the Commonwealth.

After the close of the French and Indian War Washington resigned his position in the army, and, returning to his plantation, spent most of his time in the direction of its affairs. He was repeatedly elected to the legislature of Virginia; and although he was very quiet, scarcely ever making a speech, he was highly respected by all, even the radicals, and his opinions carried great weight. His first real experience in the command of large forces was obtained in Cambridge. From this time to the close of the war the life of Washington is the history of his country.

After the army was disbanded, the troops, much dissatisfied with their treatment, desired to form a new government, making Washington their king. He refused this proposal with scorn, and again went home to Mount Vernon. Here he quietly remained, though keeping in touch with every movement, until he was elected a delegate to the Federal Convention in 1787. No one thought of electing any other than Washington to the Presidency, and in 1789 he was, as with one voice, chosen the first President of the United States.

**401. The Cabinet.** — At this time the people had not yet crystallized into political parties. Washington appointed Thomas Jefferson, Secretary of Foreign Affairs (now called Secretary of State); Alexander Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury; Henry Knox, Secretary of War; and Edmund Randolph, Attorney-General. These four officers at that time constituted the President's cabinet. The first Postmaster-General was Samuel Osgood, who was soon succeeded by

Timothy Pickering. The Supreme Court of the United States was established and its judges appointed. Congress also voted to organize the United States circuit courts and district courts. Twelve amendments to the Constitution were proposed by Congress, and ten of them were ratified by three-fourths of the States and thus became a part of the Constitution.

**The Inauguration.** — As soon as Congress had counted the votes of the electors of President and Vice-President, information was sent to General Washington, at his home at Mount Vernon. The messenger arrived April 14th, 1789; and two days later the first President-elect set out for New York, where Congress was in session. This journey occupied several days, and took the form of a triumphal procession. At every village and town through which he passed, the people thronged the streets, scattered flowers in his way, and greeted him with expressions of great joy and attachment. At Trenton, the site of Washington's great victory, a triumphal arch was erected, covered with decorations, bearing the words, "The Defender of the Mothers will be the Protector of the Daughters."

The inauguration took place at New York, on Thursday, the **thirtieth of April, 1789,** at the old Federal Hall. From its balcony, in sight of a vast concourse of people, Washington took the oath of office, and was enthusiastically cheered by the multitude. "He was dressed in a complete suit of dark brown broadcloth, of American production, long white silk stockings, silver shoe-buckles upon his polished shoes, a steel-hilted dress-sword, and his hair dressed and powdered and gathered in a bag." After the ceremony, the President delivered his inaugural address in the Senate-chamber, attended divine service at Saint Paul's Church, and in the evening witnessed the illumination of the town.

**402. The New Capital.** — During Washington's administration three new States were admitted; namely, Vermont, March 4th, 1791, Kentucky, June 1st, 1792, and Tennessee, June 1st, 1796. In 1790 the national capital was fixed for ten years at Philadelphia, and it was voted that at the expiration of that time it should be placed at a new city, to be built on the Potomac and named Washington in honor of the first President. Among the important acts of Congress during Washington's first term may be mentioned the establishment of a national bank and United States mint, at Philadelphia, in 1792.

**403. Two Parties.** — During this term two political parties were formed. They were soon called the Federal and the Republican parties. Jefferson and Randolph became the Republican leaders, and Hamilton and Knox the Federalist leaders. Both parties, of course, desired the best possible government, but the Federalists believed this could be obtained by a strong national power, while the Republicans were in favor of large State rights. In other words, the Federalists wished to have the larger powers granted to the national government and the smaller powers to the State governments, while the Republicans desired exactly the reverse. The Federalists were more numerous at the North and the Republicans at the South.

**404. Slavery.** — In February, 1790, during Washington's first administration, a petition was presented to Congress asking that measures be adopted looking toward the ultimate abolition of African slavery throughout the country. This petition was headed by no less a person than Dr. Franklin. He was then a venerable man, eighty-four years of age, and this was but two months before his death. After a full discussion, Congress voted that the question of slavery was entirely within the control of the several States, and that the Federal government had no authority to emancipate the slaves in any State.

**Vermont**, "the Green Mountain State," was first explored by Champlain in 1609, but was not permanently settled until 1724. Its territory was claimed by both New York and New Hampshire. The Continental Congress failed to grant it admission as a State, because of this dispute, but in 1789 New York gave up its claim. During the War for Independence, Vermont served as loyally as though she had been one of the thirteen colonies. The battles of Bennington, Crown Point, and Ticonderoga were fought largely by Green Mountain boys. The present population of Vermont is about a third of a million. Its chief industry is agriculture, though it is better known from the quantities of beautiful marble which it produces.

**405. Northwest Territory.** — The famous ordinance of 1787, for governing the territory northwest of the Ohio, contained a stipulation that hereafter, forever, there should be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in that territory except as a punishment for crime. Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged. This territory included the present States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, and about one third of Minnesota.

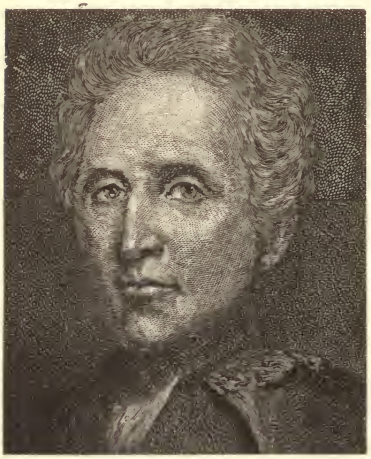
**The word "Kentucky"** is of Indian derivation, and means, according to most authorities, "the dark and bloody ground." It received this name because of the many fierce Indian conflicts which took place there. Its popular name is the "Blue-grass State." Kentucky was originally a part of the Territory of Virginia, but, at its own request, was made a separate State. Daniel Boone, the famous adventurer and hunter, led the first exploring party into this region in 1769, forming the first settlement, at what is now Harrodsburg, in 1774. Kentucky produces more tobacco than any other State. Its population is nearly two millions.

**406. The Indians.** — The Northwest Territory, especially that part which is now the State of Ohio, was rapidly filling up with settlers from the East. These settlers were seriously annoyed by frequent incursions of the Indians. A strong expedition was sent out against them in the fall of 1790, under command of General Harmer. He burned several Indian towns, but having been defeated in two battles he was removed from command. The next year General St. Clair was overpowered and defeated by the Indians with great

loss. These Indians were the Miamis, and they refused to make peace. Finally General Anthony Wayne (¶ 330) was sent against them, and utterly defeated them in a bloody battle in November, 1794. He then laid waste their country, and the next year peace was made with them.

**407. Congresses.** — The representatives in Congress are elected for two years; hence two years constitutes what is termed one Congress. The First Congress, therefore, including its two sessions, extended from March 4th, 1789, to March 4th, 1791. The Second Congress, from 1791 to 1793, completed Washington's first term as President. It was during the first term of the Second Congress — that is, in October, 1791 — that an act was passed providing for the organization and discipline of the militia of the several States.

The State of Tennessee was a part of that section of New France which the English obtained in 1763. North Carolina claimed the territory, as the Carolina charter granted land west to the South Sea. In 1769 the first real migration into western North Carolina took place, and in 1784 North Carolina ceded the portion of the State west of the mountains to the Union, but the cession was not accepted. The settlers, under the lead of John Sevier, formed a State to which the name of Franklin was given. After a few years, the State government was abandoned, and in 1790 a new cession was made by North Carolina, and the old State of Franklin was made a part of the southwest territory. The "Volunteer State" has, for the most part, given its attention to agriculture, but of late it has been found to contain vast stores of coal and iron. Within twenty years, its manufacturing industries have grown immensely, and its population has increased rapidly, being nearly two millions at the present time.



**Daniel Boone.**
(From a painting by T. Sully.)

**408. The Whiskey Insurrection.** — From 1792 to 1794 occurred what was called "The Whiskey Insurrection" in Pennsylvania. The people in the western part of the State had openly resisted the collection of a tax on distilled spirits. Washington sent General Henry Lee, the famous "Light Horse Harry," with a force of fifteen thousand militia-men, against them. At this the insurgents became alarmed, and dispersed. This was the end of that famous insurrection.

**409. The Second Term.** — The second presidential election occurred in the fall of 1792, and Washington was unanimously re-elected

President, and John Adams was re-elected Vice-President. Jefferson was continued by Washington as Secretary of State; Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury; Knox, Secretary of War; Randolph, Attorney-General; and Pickering, Postmaster-General. Hamilton had displayed great financial ability in organizing the treasury department on a basis which has been substantially continued to the present time. Jefferson, however, who had now become the leader of the Republicans, opposed Hamilton's funding system, his United States Bank, and other financial measures.

**Alexander Hamilton** was one of the most efficient founders of the Republic. As a leader of the Federalist party, and with firm faith in a strong national government, he made use of his opportunity as Secretary of the Treasury to place the finances of the young nation on a firm basis. To him, more than to any other, is due the stability of the government, its honorable dealings with its creditors, and the business-like methods of conducting its finances.

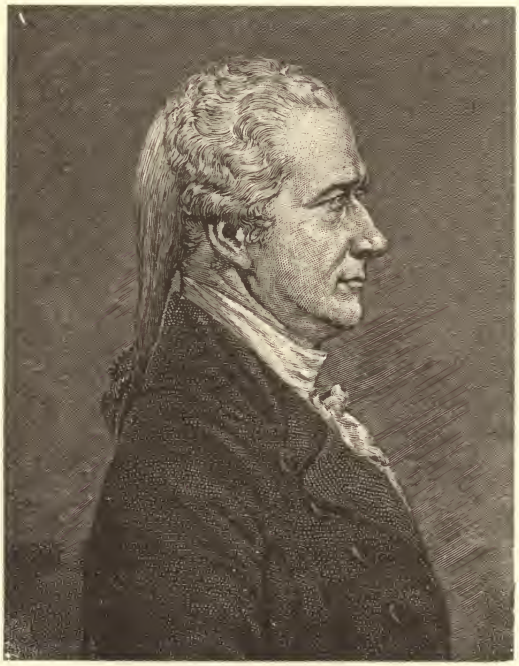
Mr. Hamilton was but nineteen when he took up the cause of the colonies, but he immediately won recognition, and in 1777 was made aide-de-camp to General Washington. After the surrender at Yorktown, he studied law, was chosen a member of Congress, and in 1787 took a leading part in the Federal Convention. The Constitution, as finally proposed, did not in all respects please him, but he accepted it as the best attainable, and his able articles in the "Federalist" did much to bring about its ratification.

He remained in Washington's cabinet until he had accomplished his plans with regard to the finances, and then resigned. Later, he held a high position in the army, and apparently had a long and prosperous life before him He was wounded in a duel with Aaron Burr, then Vice-President, and died July 12th, 1804. The national indignation at the death of Hamilton did much to put an end to the use of the duel as a means of settling personal enmities.

**410. France.** — The French Revolution and the wars which grew out of it had an important bearing on the politics of the United States. During this revolution in 1793 the French executed their king, Louis XVI. England, Spain, and Holland declared war against France. France had aided this country with troops, ships of war, and money during the Revolution. There was therefore among the people a strong desire to aid France in her conflict against the three nations. Washington and Hamilton deemed it the part of wisdom to observe strict neutrality. Jefferson was in favor of extending the aid of our army to France. These differences in Washington's cabinet occasioned much stormy discussion and great political excitement throughout the country. The natural antagonism between the Federalist and Republican parties was greatly increased by the discussions over the French question. Washington's cabinet was unable to remain composed of members of different parties. Jefferson at the close of the year 1793 resigned his position in the cabinet, but Hamilton remained

until the end of January, 1795, when he too resigned and resumed his practice at the bar.

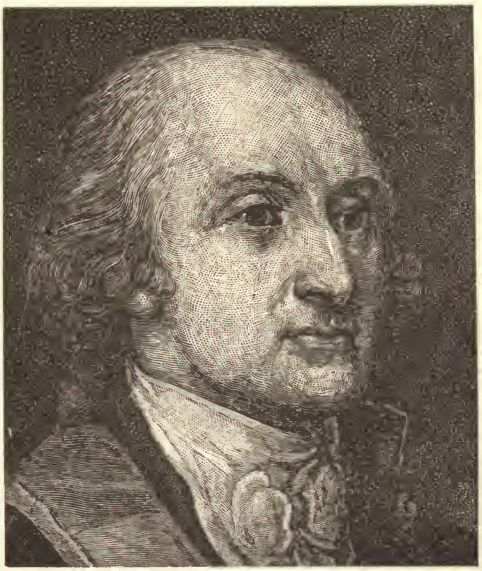
**411. England.** — The British troops still continued to hold possession of the forts on Lake Erie and vicinity, in disregard of the treaty of 1783, and the British government seemed indisposed to withdraw their forces from our territory. American merchant vessels on their way to foreign ports were seized, and seamen forcibly taken from them. In consequence of these and other acts of the British, the public feeling in the United States was bitter toward England, and many leading statesmen favored a declaration of war.



Alexander Hamilton.

**412. Jay's Treaty.** — John Jay, a discreet and able statesman, who was one of the commissioners to negotiate the treaty of peace in 1783 (¶ 368), and whom Washington had made Chief Justice of the United States, was sent to England as a special envoy. He succeeded in negotiating a treaty called the treaty of **1795**, by which war was prevented, and the honor of our government maintained. In some quarters, however, there was bitter opposition to this treaty. The most important criticism was its failure to restrict the British claim of the right of "search and impressment" (¶ 430). An important treaty was negotiated with Spain, fixing boundaries between the Spanish possessions and the United States. Spain granted to our country the right to navigate the Mississippi, and provided that New Orleans should be a port of deposit for our Western States.

**413. Third Term.** — Washington's second term was now drawing to a close. The desire was very general that he should continue President during a third term, but Washington persistently refused, and John Adams, who for eight years had been Vice-President, and who was a pronounced Federalist, was elected to succeed him. Jefferson was elected Vice-President.



John Jay.

**414. Farewell Address.** — Washington now retired to private life. His career as soldier, in command of our armies, and as the chief executive of the nation, had been long and useful, and reflected the highest credit upon him. On his retirement he issued his famous farewell address, — a document of rare merit, exhibiting the highest statesmanship, and filled with sentiments of the most exalted patriotism (Appendix D). It should be read by every pupil in the schools who studies the history of our country.

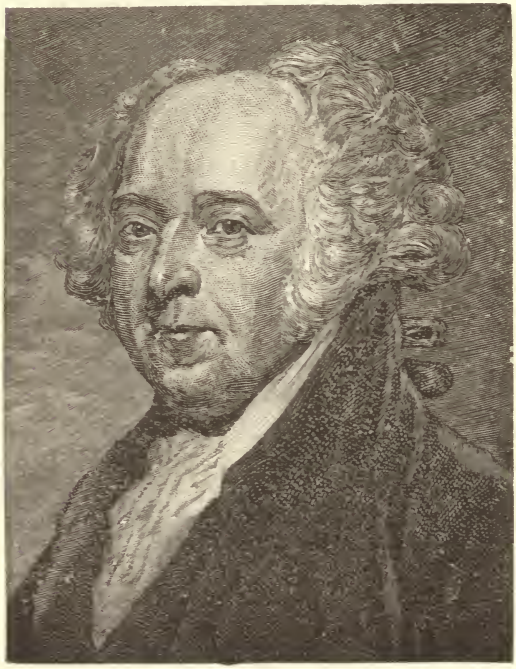
The eight years of Washington's administrations covered a period of increasing prosperity to the United States. The finances of the country were no longer embarrassed. The new republic had won wholesome respect abroad, and new life had been infused into every department of industry.

**John Jay**, one of the most important of the Revolutionary statesmen, was born December 12th, 1745. He took an active part in the earliest proceedings leading to the War for Independence, being a delegate to the Continental Congress in 1774, and being chosen to draw up the "Address to the People of Great Britain." Mr. Jay prepared also the first Constitution of the State of New York, and was later elected President of Congress. He was one of the negotiators of the Treaty of Peace of 1782–83, and was afterwards again returned to Congress. In 1789, President Washington appointed him Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. In 1792, he resigned this position, and two years later negotiated a treaty with Great Britain. Mr. Jay served two terms as Governor of New York. After 1801 he refused all public offices, and died May 17th, 1829.

# CHAPTER LVI.

## THE FEDERALISTS AND FRANCE. 1797-1801.

**415. The Second President.** — John Adams was inaugurated the second President of the United States on the 4th of March, **1797**, at Philadelphia. The two houses of Congress and a great concourse of people witnessed the imposing ceremony. The whole country was rapidly coming into a condition of great prosperity. The national debt had been funded, and a considerable part of it had already been paid. Provision had been made for the gradual payment of what remained, and the revenue was ample. The Indians had been pacified, and war with England had been averted. The agricultural interests of the country were flourishing, and commerce was rapidly increasing.



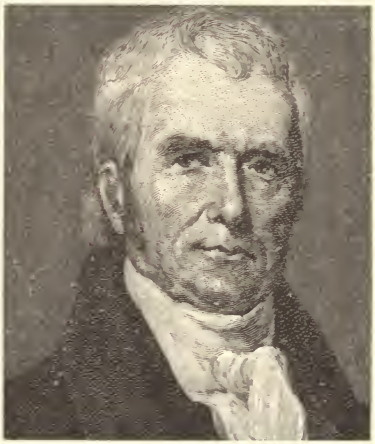
John Adams.
(From a painting by G. Stuart).

**416. Foreign Relations.** — Only in one direction was difficulty to be apprehended. The treaty which Jay had made with England prevented war between us and that country, but the treaty was unpopular with our people, and nearly caused a war with France. The French government ordered the American minister to leave the country. French cruisers roamed the seas and captured, it was estimated, as many as a thousand American vessels.

**417. Commission to France.** — President Adams was desirous of avoiding a war with France, and sent a special commission of three envoys to that country. These were John Marshall of Virginia, afterwards Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court, Charles Cotesworth Pinckney of South Carolina, and Elbridge Gerry of Massachusetts. M. Talleyrand was the French minister of foreign affairs. He refused to treat with the envoys, but through other parties it was intimated to them that if they would pay to the French government a quarter of a million dollars, they would be officially received, and all matters in dispute would be speedily settled. Pinckney at once replied in a spirited manner, "Millions for defence, but not one cent for tribute." This soon became a popular motto throughout the country.

**John Adams** was born in Braintree (now Quincy), Massachusetts, October 30th, 1735, N. S. He belonged to an old Puritan family, his ancestors having immigrated to New England in 1632. He held an honorable position as a lawyer up to the culmination of the troubles with Great Britain. Attempts were made to win him over to the royal side, but his patriotism and honor were above all bribes of position and courtly favor. The Bay Colony sent Adams as one of its delegates to the Continental Congress in 1774, and again in 1775, in which he took a prominent part. In 1777 he was sent as ambassador to France, and for ten years he spent most of his time abroad in the service of his country. In 1787 he received a cordial welcome home, and was soon elected Vice-President of the United States. He became the natural leader of the Federalist party, and was elected President in 1796.

**418. Warlike Conditions.** — The French government soon ordered Pinckney and Marshall to leave France. Mr. Gerry remained, but effected nothing. Our army was increased, a naval armament prepared, and the Department of the Navy was established. Washington was appointed commander-in-chief of our forces. In reality a state of war existed, although war had not been declared. American war vessels were fitted out to capture the French privateers. In 1799 Napoleon Bonaparte became First Consul of France, thus taking the control of the government, and the next year a treaty was negotiated, and peace was restored.



Chief Justice John Marshall.
(After a painting by Henry Inman.)

**419. Alien and Sedition Laws.** — In 1798, while these complications with France were existing, Congress passed two laws which became very unpopular with the people, and did much to break down the administration and bring the party of Federalists into a decided minority. The **Alien Law** gave authority to the President to order any alien whom he should judge dangerous to the United States to leave the country. The **Sedition Law** gave authority for punishing by fine and imprisonment any person who should speak, write, or publish anything false or malicious against the government, the President, or Congress. These laws were opposed by large numbers of the people on the ground that they abridged personal liberty and freedom of speech, and therefore were unconstitutional.

**John Marshall,** Chief Justice of the United States, was born September 24th, 1755, in Virginia. In early life he spent five years in the Revolutionary army, and then began the practice of law in his native county. He gradually rose in his profession, and was frequently a member of the Virginia legislature. In 1797 Mr. Marshall was sent as Envoy Extraordinary to France, and in 1800 he became Secretary of State under President Adams. In 1801 he was appointed Chief Justice of the United States, which position he held until his death, July 6th, 1835.

Six men occupied the Presidential office, and eighteen Congresses enacted laws, during the period that Chief-Justice Marshall was at the head of the Judicial Department of the government. This position he filled with such wonderful ability that it has been said: "He was born to be the chief-justice of any country in which he lived." Judge Story says: "The Constitution, since its adoption, owes more to him than to any other single mind for its true interpretation and vindication."

**420. Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions.** — The legislatures of Kentucky and Virginia were intensely opposed to these laws. They passed resolutions asserting the doctrine that any State had a right to judge for itself how far the national authority should be considered binding. Here was the first official utterance of the doctrine that about thirty years later took the form of *nullification* (¶ 470) in South Carolina under the leadership of John C. Calhoun, and thirty years after that, under the name of *secession* (¶ 535), plunged the country into a civil war of greater proportion and more gigantic destruction to life and property than any the world had ever seen.

**Mount Vernon.**— President Washington, though granted the highest civil and military honors, was remarkably fond of domestic life, and very glad to retire when freed from public duty. Mount Vernon was his home during all his married life, and here, where he had spent so many happy, quiet years, he was laid at rest. The mansion-house is situated on the Potomac, about fifteen miles from the city of Washington, and occupies one of the most beautiful sites in that section of the country. The estate, on which Washington's home and his tomb stand, is now owned by a society of ladies, and every year thousands visit this memorial of the "Father of his Country."

**421. Death of Washington.** — In **1799** the nation was thrown into universal grief by the death of Washington, which occurred at Mount Vernon, on the 14th of December, in the sixty-eighth year of his age. As the successful leader of our armies during the great struggle for independence, and as for eight years the first President of the new nation, for his high moral character, dignified and

Mount Vernon.

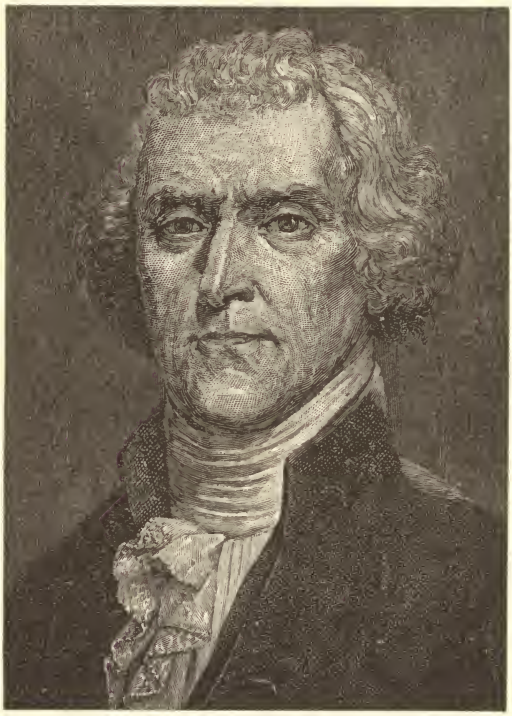
gentlemanly conduct, judicious and conservative statesmanship, pure patriotism and philanthropy, he had justly won the title that was given him by all, "first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen."

**422. Presidential Election.** — In the autumn of the year 1800 occurred another presidential election. The Federalists had become very unpopular by means of the alien and sedition laws. John Adams was the candidate of the Federalists for re-election, and Thomas Jefferson was the candidate of the Republicans for President, and Aaron Burr for Vice-President. The Federalists were defeated; and as Jefferson and Burr had an equal number of votes, the election, according to the Constitution as it then stood, was thrown into the House of Representatives. That body elected Jefferson President and Burr Vice-President.

# CHAPTER LVII.

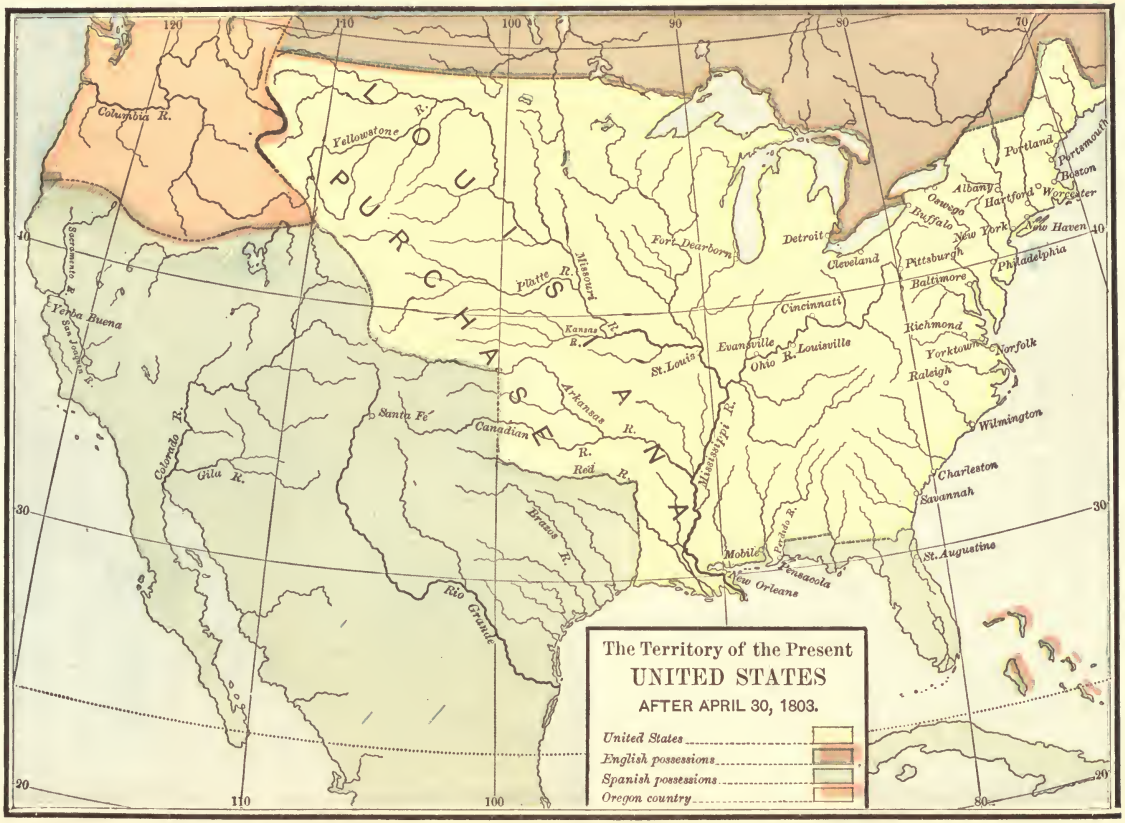
## THE REPUBLICANS AND ENGLAND. 1801-1809.

**423. Inauguration.** — The inauguration of Thomas Jefferson in 1801 as the third President of the United States was the result of the first political revolution. The Federalist party went out of power, and the Republicans assumed the government. Mr. Jefferson kept strictly to the democratic principles of his party, and refused to allow any display or ceremony in taking the oath of office. This was in striking contrast with the brilliant inaugurations of his predecessors, and has not been followed by his successors. The change of party was shown also in the appointments to office and the removal of office-holders. Mr. Jefferson acted very moderately in this matter, and removed from office only those "who had used their official power for party purposes," or had been appointed during the last days of President Adams's administration.



**Thomas Jefferson.**
(After an engraving by Baron Desnoyers, Paris.)

**424. Parties.** — President Jefferson, instead of appearing before Congress, and addressing them, as Washington and Adams had done, sent in a written message. This custom has been followed




*Copyright, 1892, in MacCoun's Historical Geography of the United States.*

by all his successors. In this message he announced what was to be the policy during his administration, and thus explained the principles of the Republican party. He proposed to strengthen the State governments, to restrict the Federal powers, and to limit the expenses of the Union to absolute necessities. Though a firm believer in his party principles, he was very careful to act so as not to increase the apprehensions of the opposition, but rather to bring them, as far as possible, over into the Republican party.

**425. Louisiana.** — One of the most important questions during this administration was that with regard to the Mississippi River. Spain owned the land on both sides of the mouth of the river and thus had the power to make the conditions under which the vessels of the United States might pass in or out. The Mississippi River, with its tributaries, was the great road for the traffic of nearly all the territory west of the Alleghanies. The Northwest Territory was developing rapidly; the population of the eastern portion had become sufficiently large to warrant the admission of Ohio, which became the seventeenth member of the Union, February 19th, 1803. It seemed more than ever necessary that the United States should have some control over the mouth of the river, or at least have free access to the Gulf of Mexico. In the year 1802 word had come to President Jefferson that France had secretly purchased from Spain the province of Louisiana. This immense tract of nearly nine hundred thousand square miles extended from the Mississippi River to the Rocky Mountains, and from the Gulf of Mexico to the northern sources of the Mississippi and the Missouri. It was a portion of the Louisiana which France had been compelled to divide between England and Spain in the treaty of 1763 (¶ 160).

**Thomas Jefferson** was born April 2d, 1743. His father, Peter Jefferson, was descended from one of the earliest settlers of Virginia. Jefferson was sent to school at an early age, entered William and Mary College at the age of seventeen, and after graduation took up the study of the law. He was first chosen to the House of Burgesses in 1768, and, like many other Virginians, was re-elected year after year. As a delegate to the General Congress, he was made chairman of the committee which drew up the famous Declaration of Independence, which was almost entirely his own work. This gave him the title of the "Framer of the Declaration." During the Revolution he served as Governor of Virginia. In 1785 Jefferson was appointed to succeed Franklin as minister to France. Here, although he did not actively participate, his advice was naturally sought by Lafayette and other leaders of the early part of the French Revolution. After returning home, he was made Secretary of State by Washington, and later became Vice-President under Adams.

**426. Louisiana Purchase.** — The territory had passed from the weak power of Spain into the hands of the powerful Napoleon, First Consul of France. The necessity of acquiring control of the mouth of the river was greater than ever. In October, 1802, the Spanish commandant, who still held possession of the province, issued an edict which closed New Orleans to American vessels. President Jefferson decided to buy, if possible, the island of New Orleans, which was formed by two branches of the river, as it flowed into the Gulf. The United States would thus obtain control of the Mississippi. In **1803** he sent James Monroe (¶ 445) to assist Robert R. Livingston, then minister to France, in making this purchase. France was at the time hard pressed by its coming struggle with England; and Napoleon, desirous of obtaining funds for the war, offered the whole province of Louisiana for fifteen million dollars. When he signed the treaty ceding the province to us, he said, "I have given to England a maritime rival that will sooner or later humble her pride." President Jefferson sent to the Senate the treaty of purchase. The Senate duly ratified it, and Congress made the necessary arrangements for the payment of the money called for.

**Ohio,** the "Buckeye State," was originally held by the French, who established a chain of forts throughout the Northwest. The opposing claims of the French and the English were settled, when the French were driven from the continent in 1763. Virginia and Connecticut laid claim to a portion of the Northwest Territory, but they yielded their claims to the United States, reserving certain lands, which were afterwards sold for the benefit of the treasury of those States. The State ranks fourth in population, having more than three and a half million inhabitants. The leading industry of Ohio has been agriculture, the most important products being cereals, fruits, and wool. In manufactures it holds a high place, especially in the production of agricultural machinery.

**Stephen Decatur.**
(From a painting by T. Sully.)

**427. Lewis and Clark.** — President Jefferson was far-seeing enough to realize the advantages that would accrue to the United States if her territory could extend to the Pacific Ocean. Even before the purchase of Louisiana he had begun preparations for an exploring

expedition across the continent. This expedition set out in 1804, under the command of two army captains, Lewis and Clark, discovered the sources of the Missouri River, crossed the Rocky Mountains, and explored the Columbia River to its mouth. This exploration not only resulted in some very interesting discoveries, but also gave the United States one of its strong claims to the region called Oregon (¶ 485).

**428. War with Tripoli.** — The only American war that occurred during Jefferson's administrations was the war with Tripoli. For more than a century the Barbary States, on the Mediterranean coast of Africa, had been the scourge of all civilized nations. The people were Mohammedans, and claimed the right to capture the vessels and enslave the men of all those Christian nations that did not purchase peace. The United States, as well as the nations of Europe, had paid these pirates their demands, and had been accustomed to suffer indignities from them that they would not have borne from any other people. In 1801 the United States refused to pay the tribute, and American vessels became the prey of Tripolitan cruisers. A fleet was sent against the pirates, and for four years a naval war was kept up against Tripoli. Peace was made in **1805**, whereby the annual tribute to Tripoli came to an end, and soon after the other Barbary States accepted similar terms. This war proved to be of value to the United States, not only in freeing her from humiliation, but in raising her in the opinion of European nations, and in providing her with a stronger and better navy.

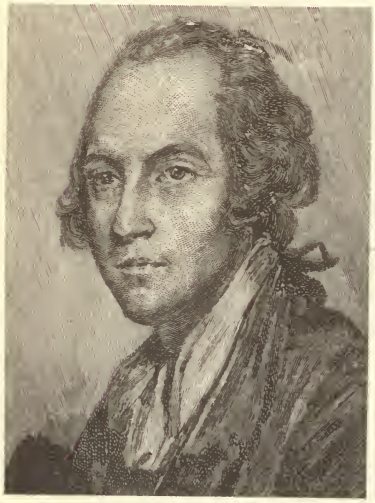
**Stephen Decatur.** — One incident in the war with Tripoli made the name of Stephen Decatur, a lieutenant in the navy of the United States, famous. The American man-of-war, the "Philadelphia," had run aground and been abandoned to the Tripolitans. Decatur took a small vessel, the "Intrepid," which had been captured from the enemy, and in the evening sailed up to the "Philadelphia," keeping the identity of his vessel well concealed. Although the frigate was in the harbor, within the range of the Tripolitan guns, Decatur and his men leaped aboard, captured and set fire to the ship, and sailed out of the harbor. The guns fired upon them from all sides, but Decatur escaped without the loss of a man. Tripoli lost one of its most valuable prizes by a feat which earned for the lieutenant the well-merited promotion to the rank of Commodore in the American navy.

**429. European War.** — England and France were continually at war during the early part of this century, and were thereby seriously injuring American commerce. In 1806 England ordered her vessels to blockade all the ports of those nations that had taken sides with

France. Napoleon replied by issuing the "Berlin Decree," prohibiting all commerce with the British Isles, and declaring them to be in a state of blockade. The next year the British "Orders in Council" were issued, forbidding American vessels to enter any port of Europe except those of Great Britain and her ally, Sweden. The "Milan Decree" followed, in which Napoleon ordered the capture of any American vessel that had previously entered an English port.

The "Chesapeake." — One incident nearly brought on immediate war with Great Britain. The American naval vessel, the "Chesapeake," had on board three seamen who had deserted from an English vessel, but all of whom were Americans by birth. On the 22d of June, 1807, a British ship, the "Leopard," demanded the surrender of these men, and, on being refused, fired upon the "Chesapeake," which was unprepared for the attack, and compelled her to strike her flag and allow a search to be made.

**430. American Seamen.** — The United States received great injury from these acts of the two leading nations of Europe, as her vessels were thus shut out of all European ports, unless they ran the blockade. The Americans had another cause of complaint in the claim that Great Britain made, of the right to stop any vessel, search it for sailors that had been British subjects, and force them into her service again. This was called the "right of search and impressment." If any seamen thus taken from American vessels were not British subjects, they had no opportunity to prove their claims.



**Aaron Burr.**

(After the painting in Hist. Society Rooms Newark, N. J From a drawing by Rosenthal.)

**431. Embargo Act.** — The people of the United States were not ready for war. Public meetings were held denouncing the outrage; but the government had little confidence in the new navy, and deemed it best to try some other method of protecting American commerce. Late in the year **1807** Congress passed the Embargo Act, which forbade all vessels leaving or entering American harbors, except for the coast trade. This act rested heavily upon the commercial portions of the country, and, in fact, was a serious injury, while it caused less

harm to English commerce, against which it was aimed. In 1809 the Non-Intercourse Act was substituted in place of the Embargo Act. By this act England and France alone were forbidden intercourse with American ports.

**432. Presidential Elections.** — At the close of Jefferson's first term the Republicans renominated him for President, and associated with him George Clinton of New York in place of Burr. The Federalist candidates, Pinckney and King, were defeated by an overwhelming vote. The Twelfth Amendment had been made previous to this time, so that the electors voted separately for President and Vice-President, and a tie like that of 1800 would, in the future, be impossible.

Caucuses of the members of Congress, representing each party, were held in 1808; and in the Republican caucus James Madison of Virginia was nominated for President, and George Clinton of New York for Vice-President. The Federalists renominated Pinckney and King, whose vote was larger than four years before, but still smaller than that received by Madison and Clinton.

**The Plot of Aaron Burr.** — After the murder of Hamilton, Burr fled, and for a time remained in hiding. When he did return to civilization, he met with so cool a reception that he soon began scheming for some means of recovering his prestige. In 1806 he went across the Alleghanies, and was soon joined by men who were willing to unite in any scheme that might bring them wealth or power. For some time the plot seemed likely to be successful, but soon the authorities arrested the leaders, and the conspiracy was at an end. It has never been fully known what Burr planned, but it is thought that he proposed to form a new nation out of the western territories and the Spanish provinces, and to put himself at its head. Though Burr was tried on a charge of high treason, no treasonable act could be proved against him, and he was set free. He afterward spent many years as an exile, and then returned to America and practised law again. He was shunned by his neighbors, and when he died no expressions of love or regret were heard.

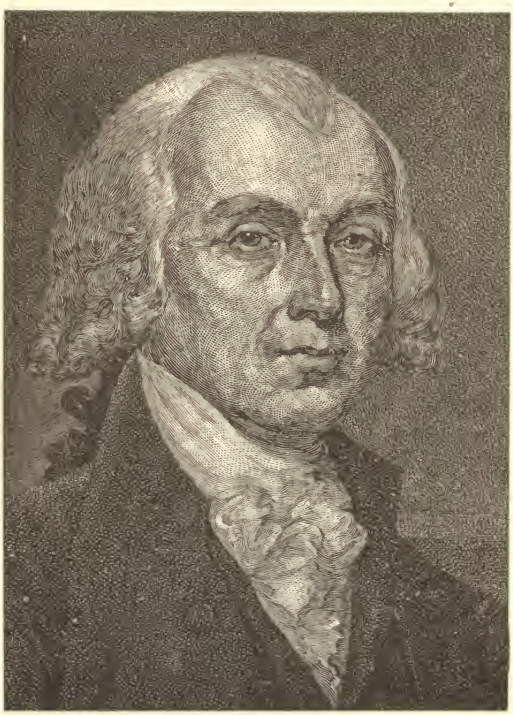
## CHAPTER LVIII.

### THE WAR OF 1812.

**433. Foreign Affairs.** — President Madison took the oath of office March 4th, 1809, and found foreign affairs in a very deplorable state. The Non-Intercourse Act had not proved beneficial to American commerce even in the eyes of its friends. It was repealed in 1810,

and an act was passed, proposing that, if either France or England should promise to cease injuring American commerce, non-intercourse would be declared with the other. The government received the impression from Napoleon that the Milan and the Berlin decrees were repealed, and it therefore forbade trade with Great Britain. For two years this state of things continued, during which President Madison and his cabinet did all in their power to avoid war, and yet not humiliate the country.

**434. Declaration of War.** — The war spirit was rising, and especially in the West the demand for a war with Great Britain was unmistakable. The Republican party had obtained new leaders in a number of young men who were coming rapidly to the front, and who were earnest in their desire for war. Henry Clay of Kentucky (¶ 513) was made Speaker of the House of Representatives in 1811, and he was ably seconded by John C. Calhoun of South Carolina (¶ 472) and William H. Crawford of Georgia (¶ 452).



**James Madison.**
(From a painting by G. Stuart.)

Two incidents occurred during the year 1811 which strengthened the hostility against England. Tecumseh, a chief of the Indians in the Northwest Territory, attempted to form a confederacy of all the Indians in the vicinity. His object was to resist the encroachments of the United States, and he received aid in his attempt from British agents. The Indians suddenly attacked General Harrison (¶ 483) at Tippecanoe,

but were completely defeated. Tecumseh soon after crossed the line into Canada, and entered the British service.

The other incident recalled the unprovoked attack upon the "Chesapeake" four years before. The British war-vessel, "Little Belt," fired upon an American frigate, "The President," without cause, and was severely injured by the return fire.

**James Madison,** the fourth President, was another of the famous statesmen belonging to the period of the Revolution. On account of his leading influence in drafting the Constitution he has received the name of the "Father of the Constitution." Later, Madison, in his political beliefs, followed closely in the footsteps of Jefferson, but, unlike Jefferson, always succeeded in keeping the friendship of his opponents. He was greatly opposed to the Alien and Sedition Laws, and, much to his distress, his speeches and writings on the question were years afterward freely quoted by Calhoun and his followers as an authority for their doctrine of "Nullification." Madison was born in King George County, Virginia, March 16th, 1751, and died June 28th, 1836.

President Madison sent to Congress, June 1st, 1812, a message which recounted the grounds for war: (1) impressment of our seamen; (2) attacks upon American vessels; (3) injury to our commerce; and (4) tampering with the Indians. In response to this message Congress declared war against Great Britain, **June 18th, 1812.**

**435. Condition of the People.** — The war party in Congress was composed of the larger portion of the Republican members. A small minority of them, together with the Federalists, were bitterly opposed. Most of the people in New England considered friendship with England necessary, and that the war would injure their section more than the rest of the country. Only indirectly was this true. But few battles occurred within the territory of New England, though the war proved very disastrous to her commerce. The Canadian border bore the brunt of the war, which for the most part was around the Great Lakes. The preparation that had been made was meagre indeed. Scarcely a dozen efficient vessels belonged to the American navy, making but a small fleet compared with the powerful British navy, which consisted of more than a hundred heavy ships. The army was small, made up of

undisciplined men, with ignorant generals. Only great provocation could justify war under these considerations.

**436. Invasion of Canada.** — The first plan of the government was to invade Canada. Accordingly, General William Hull, Governor of the Territory of Michigan, crossed the river from Detroit, only to fall back upon the advance of General Brock. The British pressed after him, and were in the act of attacking Detroit when Hull surrendered, August 16th. Instead of injuring Canada, the Americans lost Michigan, without a gun being fired in her defence.

The "Constitution" and "Guerriere."

The second attempt to invade Canada was made from New York. A portion of the American army crossed the Niagara River, and won a victory at Queenstown Heights, but later was compelled to surrender because the rest of the soldiers refused to cross into Canada. During the year **1812** the American army met with constant defeat.

**437. Naval Victories.** — Little had been expected from the navy at the beginning of the war; but brilliant naval victories more than offset the failures of the army. During the second half of the year **1812** four of these exploits brought joy to the American people, and astonishment to England. August 19th Captain Hull, of the frigate "Constitution," fought for two hours with the "Guerrière," near Newfoundland, and completely wrecked the British frigate. The "Constitution" barely received injury, and lost but fourteen men against the enemy's eighty.

In October the "Wasp" defeated the "Frolic" off the coast of North Carolina; and on boarding the defeated vessel, the Americans found but four men left, and three of these wounded. The capture of the "Macedonian" by the "United States," and of the "Java" by the "Constitution," rounded out the glorious record of the year. Almost for the first time in her history England had been humiliated on the ocean, and that, too, by vessels belonging to the weak navy of a young nation, from whom nothing of the kind was expected.

**438. The Navy in 1813.** — The victories during the second year of the war were not so one-sided. The American seamen had been in a condition of better discipline, while the British sailors had become careless because of their previous continuous successes. The British vessels were now ordered to keep within call of one another, and the officers were directed to enforce more careful discipline.

Commodore O. H Perry.
(From a painting by J. W. Jarvis.)

The two most important naval exploits of this year were the loss of the "Chesapeake" and the cruise of the "Essex." Captain Lawrence, of the "Chesapeake," attacked the "Shannon" within sight of Boston, and her colors were not struck until Lawrence was mortally wounded. Captain Porter sailed the "Essex" into the Pacific Ocean, protected American vessels, and injured the British whaling industry. He

was blockaded in the harbor of Valparaiso by two British vessels, and was compelled to surrender.

**439. Around Lake Erie.** — The victories of American vessels upon the ocean gave encouragement to the building of a fleet upon the Great Lakes. Early in the year, Captain Oliver H. Perry built a small fleet upon Lake Erie. **September 10th, 1813,** Perry, with nine vessels and fifty-four guns, attacked the British fleet, of six vessels and sixty-three guns, and defeated it. He announced: "We have met the enemy and they are ours, — two ships, two brigs, one schooner, and one sloop."

By this victory the Americans obtained control of Lake Erie, and another attempt was made to invade Canada. General Harrison (¶ 483) crossed the lake, attacked the British army at the river Thames, and completely defeated it. In this battle the Indian chief, Tecumseh, was killed. Michigan was recovered, and the war in the Northwest was brought to an end.

**440. On the Border.** — Four engagements of importance occurred along the Canadian border during the year 1814. In July a fourth invasion of Canada was begun by an American army crossing the Niagara River. General Winfield Scott (¶ 492) attacked the enemy at a stream called the Chippewa, and drove them as far as Lake Ontario. The British, re-enforced, were again attacked at Lundy's Lane, and the battle lasted from sunset to midnight, when the British retreated with

the loss of their commander. Two months later the Americans repelled a British attack upon Fort Erie. The assailing force was much larger than the American army at the fort, but the British were driven back beyond the Chippewa. These three victories were of moral aid to the country, but bore no immediate gain. The army soon went into winter-quarters at Buffalo.

An attempt was made by the British to invade New York by way of Lake Champlain and the Hudson River. Their fleet was met on the lake by Commodore MacDonough, in September, 1814, and, though the two fleets were nearly equal, the British were driven back with a loss of two hundred men and four vessels. This defeated the expedition and ended the war in the North.

**441. Burning of the Capitol.** — The English fleet upon the Atlantic completely blockaded the principal seaports of the United States, and kept the coast in a condition of constant alarm. They attacked many of the smaller towns, and plundered and burned wherever they went. Admiral Cockburn took possession of the mouth of the Chesapeake Bay as his headquarters. In August, 1814, General Ross landed in Maryland, and marched overland to the city of Washington. The British captured the city, and disgracefully burned nearly all of the public buildings. They did not spare the Capitol, and some private buildings also were destroyed in the conflagration. From Washington the enemy sailed up the Chesapeake to attack Baltimore. They were resisted at Fort McHenry, and driven back with the loss of their commander.

"Star Spangled Banner." — The failure of the British to capture Fort McHenry inspired the writing of one of America's best-known national songs. Francis S. Key had, during the day before the battle, visited the British fleet, in order to negotiate for an exchange of prisoners. He was detained on the vessel, and spent the night while the enemy made the attack on the fort. With patriotic zeal, Mr. Key waited the result of the combat, and in the morning saw the flag still flying. On the spot, he wrote the "Star-Spangled Banner," which immediately became popular, and was soon sung, far and near, throughout the country.

**442. The Hartford Convention.** — As has been before mentioned, the New England States had always opposed the war. When, in the latter part of the year 1814, it seemed as if the war was a failure, that the government could not, and, as they thought, would not, protect New England, delegates from the five New England States met at Hartford "to confer upon the subject of their public grievances." After a short session these delegates reported, advis-

ing amendments to the Constitution, among them one to restrict certain powers of Congress. Although this report was all that officially came from the Hartford Convention, it has been commonly believed that a dissolution of the Union was urged at this meeting. As the public was not admitted to its sessions, and as no general report of its discussions was ever published, this supposition could not be disproved. The delegates were politically ruined, and a death-blow was given to the Federalist party.

**Louisiana** was the first State to be formed out of the great province which Jefferson purchased from France in 1803. It had been settled by the French, under D'Iberville, in 1700, near the present site of New Orleans. In 1804, the southern portion of the province was made into the territory of Orleans, the name being changed to Louisiana when it was made a State. The leading agricultural industries of the "Pelican State" are cotton, sugar, and rice. Manufactures have, of late, been started in the State, while its population has rapidly increased until it is a little over a million.

**443. Treaty of Peace.** — No second session of the Hartford Convention was held, as a treaty of peace was concluded even during its session. **December 24th, 1814**, American and British commissioners signed a treaty at Ghent, which was afterwards ratified by both nations. The issues which brought about the war were not settled by the treaty, and affairs seemed to be left about as they had been before the war. In fact, however, the war strengthened the position of the United States in the eyes of Europe, and England never again attempted to enforce her claim to the right of search and impressment.

**Indiana** was the second of the States made out of the Northwest Territory. When Ohio was made a State, the rest of the territory was called Indiana, because of the Indian settlements within its borders. Like the other States in that section of the country, agriculture is the chief branch of industry, cereal productions holding the first rank. With a population of two and a half millions, the "Hoosier State" is one of the most prosperous in the Union.

News of the treaty did not reach the United States until February of the next year. Meanwhile, January 8th, 1815, a severe battle had been fought at New Orleans. General Andrew Jackson (¶ 468) had fortified the city, and with six thousand men withstood a British force of twice that number, under Sir Edward Pakenham. The American victory was complete, Jackson losing less than twenty-five men, killed and wounded, while the enemy lost their leader and more than two thousand soldiers.

**444. Domestic Affairs.** — Nearly the whole of Madison's two administrations was devoted to European affairs and the war with

England. Few domestic matters of importance occupied the attention of Congress.

In 1811 an attempt was made to re-charter the National Bank (¶ 409), but it was unsuccessful, and the bank was closed. Five years later another attempt fared better, and a charter was granted for twenty years.

Two new States were admitted, — Louisiana, the eighteenth, April 30th, 1812, and Indiana, the nineteenth, December 11th, 1816.

President Madison was re-elected in 1812, by a vote of 128 to 89 for DeWitt Clinton of New York; Elbridge Gerry of Massachusetts being chosen Vice-President. James Monroe and Daniel D. Tompkins were the Republican candidates in 1816, and Monroe received a large majority over Rufus King, the candidate of the Federalists.

## CHAPTER LIX.

### AN ERA OF GOOD FEELING. 1817-1825.

**445. Monroe's Administrations.** — James Monroe became President in **1817**, a time when the United States was at peace with all the world. During his term of office the Federalist party ceased to exist, and all the people belonged to one party. In 1820 there was no opposition to the re-election of Monroe and Tompkins, and in the electoral college President Monroe received all the votes but one. These eight years were termed the "Era of Good Feeling."

**446. The Purchase of Florida.** — In 1818, General Andrew Jackson (¶ 468) was sent to repel the invasion into Georgia by the Seminole Indians of Florida. The Spanish officials so persistently aided the Indians that Jackson exceeded his authority, invaded Florida, and seized the town of Pensacola. John Quincy Adams, the Secretary of State, entered into communication with Spain to settle this difficulty as well as the boundary dispute which had been pending since the purchase of Louisiana. These negotiations resulted in the purchase of Florida for the sum of five million

dollars. The treaty was signed by the commissioners in **1819**, but was not finally ratified by the two governments until two years later. In this treaty the United States waived all right to the province of Texas (¶ 483), and Spain gave up her claims to any land on the Pacific coast north of the forty-second parallel. Thus was acquired another claim to the Oregon country (¶ 485).

James Monroe.

**447. The Slavery Question.** — The most important question that arose during Monroe's administrations was with regard to slave and free States. One by one the Northern States abolished slavery, so that before 1808, when the foreign slave-trade was abolished, there were nine free States in the North and eight slave States in the South. By the admission of Louisiana and Indiana during Madison's term, the numbers were ten free and nine slave. The attempt was being made to keep the numbers equal in order that the Senate might be equally divided. December 10th, 1817, Mississippi (slave) was admitted, and the numbers were equal. December 3d, 1818, Illinois (free), and December 14th, 1819, Alabama (slave) were admitted to the Union. In 1820 Maine and Missouri applied for admission. The question arose at once whether slavery should be permitted in the proposed State of Missouri or not. Maine became a State March 15th, 1820.

**448. The Missouri Compromise.** — The South was very anxious to keep the equality in the Senate, which would be lost if both Maine and Missouri were made free States. The opposition to the extension

**James Monroe**, the last President from the Revolutionary group of statesmen, was born in Westmoreland County, Virginia, April 28th, 1758. Leaving his studies at William and Mary College at the outbreak of the war, he entered the Revolutionary army at the early age of eighteen. He served his State as member of the legislature, representative, senator, and finally as governor. He had much experience in diplomatic service, being, at various times, minister to France, Spain, and England.

As minister, perhaps his most important work was the negotiation, with R. R. Livingston, for the purchase of the province of Louisiana. During Madison's administration, he was Secretary of State, and a part of the time also Secretary of War. Monroe was elected President in 1816, and served two terms. He died July 4th, 1831.

of slavery had become strong in the North, and many members of Congress hesitated to vote to increase the number of slave States. The people of Illinois strongly objected to the forming of the slave State of Missouri, as it lay to the west of them, and a portion of Illinois would then be nearly surrounded by slavery. After a long debate the famous Missouri Compromise bill of 1820 was passed (¶ 513). This bill admitted Missouri as a slave State, while a statute was passed forever prohibiting slavery in the remainder of the Louisiana purchase, north of the parallel of 36° 30′. The result of this compromise was simply to postpone the settlement of the slavery question, and for thirty years (¶ 521) no further trouble arose directly over the admission of free or slave States. Missouri became a State August 10th, 1821.

**Mississippi.** — The first settlement made in southern New France was in 1699, at Biloxi, in what is now Mississippi. This region passed to the English in 1763, and the larger part of it to the United States in 1783. The portion along the Gulf of Mexico was granted to Spain at the same time, and was for nearly forty years the cause of a dispute, which was not settled until the purchase of Florida. The "Bayou State" contains an abundance of very fertile soil, a large portion of which is used in the production of cotton. More than a million and a quarter people live here, of which number one fourth are employed in farming.

**449. The Monroe Doctrine.** — During the early part of this century the various Spanish colonies on the American continent, influenced by the example of the United States, threw off the yoke of Spain, and, before 1822, had become independent States. Spain was unable alone to bring them back to their allegiance, but attempted to prevail upon other European nations to aid her. President Monroe decided to make a protest that Europe should not interfere in American affairs. He sent a message to Congress, in which he said "that the American continents, by the free and independent condition which they have assumed and maintained, are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European powers," and that, in matters relating to America, "we could not

**Illinois,** the third State in rank of population, was the third of the "Northwest" States to be admitted. In 1810 the population of the territory was about twelve thousand, while, eighty years later, it was nearly four million. In 1895 its population was more than four and a half millions. The city of Chicago had, in 1830, a population of ten families, and in 1896, after a period of sixty-six years, it vies with New York for first place, with nearly a million and a half inhabitants. Illinois is one of the great cereal-producing States, and possesses very rich soil throughout its whole extent. The manufacturing industries of the State rank well with any of the older States. The excellent location of Chicago makes it the centre of great commercial activity. The northern section of the State is more thickly covered with railroads than any other section of equal size in the world.

view any interposition by any European power in any other light than as a manifestation of an unfriendly disposition towards the United States." He further added that we "should consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety." This main idea had been suggested by President Jefferson many years before this time; but this was the first explicit statement of the proposition, and it therefore received the name of the "Monroe Doctrine."

**Alabama**, a portion of the eastern half of the original Louisiana Province, was ceded to England in 1763. For a time included in the State of Georgia, it was afterwards ceded to the United States, and in 1802 became a part of the Territory of Mississippi. It was made a separate territory in 1817, when Mississippi became a State. Until within a few years, Alabama, or the "Cotton State," has devoted most of its attention to cotton and other agricultural products. Of late, however, it has begun to make use of its coal and iron mines, and to build up the manufacturing industries, for which it has great advantages. It is having a rapid growth, its population being more than a million and a half.

**450. The Tariff Question.** — The War of 1812, as well as the attack upon American commerce before the war, led to the formation of many manufacturing establishments. Inasmuch as manufactured goods could not be imported, it was necessary to make them at home, if possible. When the Treaty of Ghent brought peace and a revival of commerce, a vast quantity of manufactured goods was brought in from England. They were sold at such low prices that there was no sale for American manufactures. A large number of petitions began to pour in upon Congress, asking it to impose high duties upon such imported goods as were being or could be produced in this country. It was hoped that if such duty was added to the price of foreign goods, home products might be sold at a price that would furnish some profit to the manufacturer.

**Maine.** — The Popham colony was established at the mouth of the Kennebec, in 1607. Mason and Gorges possessed the land from the Kennebec to the Merrimac in 1620. In 1639 Ferdinando Gorges obtained a charter of Maine from Charles I. Under the name of Pemaquid, the territory belonged later to the Duke of York, afterwards James I. After other changes, Maine was annexed to Massachusetts in 1691. The province suffered severely in the French wars, the Revolution, and the War of 1812. March 15th, 1820, with the permission of Massachusetts, Maine was made a separate State. The "Pine Tree State" is devoted primarily to agriculture. Its fisheries are only exceeded in amount by Massachusetts. Its most unique production is the ice which is cut from its rivers. Its population is about seven hundred thousand.

**451. Tariffs.** — In 1816 a new tariff act was passed by Congress, placing a comparatively high duty upon cotton and woollen goods, as these were the most important of the new manufactures. This tariff did

not prove as satisfactory as had been hoped. The importations of foreign goods was considerably reduced, but not enough to satisfy the American manufacturers. In 1820 a bill laying a higher protective tariff lacked but one vote of becoming a law. In 1824 another, and this time a successful, attempt was made to furnish greater protection to home industries; and a new tariff was passed, increasing the duties on other goods as well as on cotton and woollen manufactures.

Missouri was the second State to be made out of the Louisiana purchase. When Louisiana was made a State in 1812, the rest of the territory was organized under the name of Missouri. The first settlement in the State was made at St. Genevieve, in 1700. St. Louis ranks fifth among the great cities of the country, with a population of nearly half a million, while the State also ranks fifth, with a population of about three million. The State ranks seventh in valuation, and at the head of the former slave States. Its industries are very diversified, mining, agriculture, manufacturing, and commerce each holding a high place, as compared with its sister States.

**452. Presidential Election.** — At the close of President Monroe's term, as no parties existed, no party nominations for the Presidential chair were made. Four candidates were in the field for the office, each selected by a circle of friends. When the election took place it was found that Andrew Jackson had received 99 votes, John Quincy Adams 84, William H. Crawford 41, and Henry Clay 37. The election was, according to the Constitution, thrown into the House of Representatives, and a choice was made from the first three. Clay's friends gave their votes to Adams, and he was elected. John C. Calhoun (¶ 472), of South Carolina, was chosen Vice-President.

## CHAPTER LX.

### THE UNITED STATES OF 1825.

**453. Population.** — During the thirty-five years between 1790 and 1825 the population of the United States increased from less than four to about eleven millions. The business centres on the Atlantic coast had changed from small towns to cities of respectable size, and had lost the provincial character noticeable during the eighteenth century. The tide of migration was westward, and the centre of population, which in 1790 was east of the Chesapeake Bay, in

1825 had nearly reached the western extremity of Maryland. Each of the original thirteen States showed, in every census, a large growth in population; but the new States and Territories west of the Alleghanies had made wonderful gains.

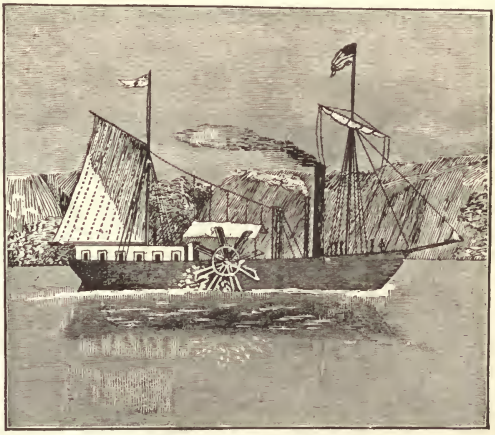
**454. Territory.** — The area of the original thirteen colonies east of the Alleghanies was less than four hundred thousand square miles, and that of the original United States was but a little more than twice as large. By the purchase of Louisiana in 1803 the territory of the United States was more than doubled, and the purchase of Florida in 1819 (¶ 446) added nearly sixty thousand square miles. The territorial area of the country, therefore, had been extended, during these thirty-five years, from about eight hundred thousand to nearly eighteen hundred thousand square miles. At the same time, the number of States comprising the Union had increased from thirteen to twenty-four.

Robert Fulton.

**455. Travel on Land.** — The enormous increase of territorial limits had called attention to the great need of better means of transportation. The subject of "rapid transit" began to interest statesmen and inventors as well as mere travellers. Most of the journeys were usually made by land, and the necessity of better roads became apparent. Months were needed to make journeys which to-day can easily be accomplished in days. The United States government took no direct steps to improve the means of transportation except by building a national road. The intention was to connect the navigable portion of the Potomac River with the Ohio by means of a good road, of easy grade, well built, and with good bridges. The sum of a million dollars was spent during the administration of President Monroe upon the "Cumberland Road," which extended between Cumberland, Maryland, and Wheeling, Virginia. Later, this road was extended into Indiana; but, with this

exception, the Federal government has left the matter of the building of roads to the care of the States or of private corporations.

**456. Travel by Water.** — Many attempts were made between 1788 and 1807 to make use of steam as a means of propelling vessels. Robert Fulton was the first to make a successful public experiment of running a steamboat. In **1807** his little boat, with side paddle-wheels, began to make regular trips between New York and Albany. These trips of the "Clermont" were so successful that other steamboats were built; and in 1814 the "Vesuvius" began to make regular trips between Pittsburg and New Orleans. The "Savannah" crossed the Atlantic in 1819, and in 1825 the "Enterprise" steamed around the Cape of Good Hope to India. While the invention of the steamboat greatly aided transportation along the rivers, the travel across the land from one river to another was as difficult as ever. This was especially the case when the journey was from the Eastern to the Western States, where the roads over the Appalachian Mountains were so difficult. Attempts were made to prevail upon Congress to authorize the construction of canals across the mountains, but they were unsuccessful, and this improvement was also left to private or State enterprise.



"The Clermont."

**"Clinton's Big Ditch."** — Many small canals were built in various sections of the country, and in 1817 the immense task of connecting Lake Erie with the Hudson River was begun. This "Erie Canal" was built by the State of New York, and was not completed until 1825. De Witt Clinton, the Governor of the State, was very energetic in this work, and those who opposed the building of the canal as impracticable used to speak of it as "Clinton's Big Ditch." The scheme was practicable, however, and nothing was more important in increasing the wealth and power of New York City than this canal, which furnishes an easy means of transportation from the Great Lakes to the Atlantic seaboard.

**457. Agriculture.** — Farming was still the most important occupation in the United States. Wheat, flour, Indian corn, rye,

beans, peas, potatoes, beef, tallow, and hides from the North, and rice, tobacco, indigo, and cotton from the South, were among the staple productions. The new West had taken the lead, and lacked only sufficient laborers to be able to furnish agricultural products for the whole world. Emigration from Europe, which had been very small between 1790 and 1815, then began to increase, and about 1820 two or three thousand emigrants yearly left Great Britain,

A Western Emigrant Train.

Ireland, Germany, Switzerland, and France, for the New World, and its great agricultural territories.

**458. Manufactures.** — During the period preceding the year 1825 many American manufactures were started and put upon a firm basis. The first cotton-mills were established in Beverly, Massachusetts, and Pawtucket, Rhode Island, soon after the adoption of the Constitution. Mills in which cotton yarn was spun began to spring up in New England. The yarn was woven into cloth by hand. In 1813 a mill in Waltham, Massachusetts, was the first both to spin

the cotton and weave it into cloth by power machinery. Woollen, leather, and iron manufactures ranked next in importance to cotton, and the amount of these staples produced in the United States was constantly increasing. Other smaller industries were beginning in New England and the Middle States, such as the manufacturing of hats, bonnets, and rope. The many falls in the New England rivers furnished power for running machinery at slight expense, and aided very materially in establishing the infant manufactures.

**459. Protective Tariffs.** — When, in 1816, the first protective tariff act was enacted by Congress, many of the representatives from New England voted in opposition to it. The interests of the Eastern States had been almost wholly commercial, and they felt that such acts would seriously injure foreign trade. When this law had passed, and later that of 1824, New Englanders felt themselves compelled to turn their attention to manufacturing, and soon a large part of the manufactured goods of ordinary quality were produced in this country. The main reasons advanced in favor of the protective tariff were that by means of it more employment would be obtained for the people, and the mill employees would be able to purchase more farm products, and thus the gain would be mutual. Those opposed to the principle of protection to home industries would argue that unprofitable industries would be started; that without the protective tariff the country would produce naturally what was necessary and best; that the benefit would accrue to the manufacturers and not to the employees, to a section and not to the whole country. The whole question of a tariff for protection and a tariff for revenue only is still (1896) a live issue, and upon it party lines continue to be drawn.

**Emigrant trains.** — From the eastern States, emigrant caravans weekly crossed the mountains, *en route* for the West. These were covered wagons, in which the household goods were placed, as well as the women and children. The men would walk, or travel on horseback, driving sheep and cattle before them. These emigrants journeyed in large parties, and passed by the larger towns and more settled communities, constantly going farther and farther west, to the very frontiers. These pioneers were hardy settlers, and the Western States owe them much.

**460. Education.** — The first quarter of the nineteenth century was a period of growth in education and literature as well as in material prosperity. In New England schools were established in every town; and though the "schooling" was meagre as compared with that of the present day, it was in keeping with the conditions

of the time. In the Middle States the development was later, and in the Southern States only the children of the wealthy land-owners received a fair amount of instruction. Among the new States in the West a beginning was being made in the establishment of an excellent system of education. Public lands were appropriated for educational purposes, and the revenue derived from their sale put the schools on a firm foundation.

**461. Religious Interests.** — One of the most marked effects of the American Revolution and the establishment of the Republic was the growth of toleration. During the colonial period, except in Rhode Island and Pennsylvania, freedom in religious matters was almost unknown. When independence was fully established, one by one the different States relaxed and then repealed their intolerant laws until perfect freedom in worship was granted. With this advance movement there came a revival of religious interest which spread over the whole country, and Christians of most opposite religious beliefs worked hand in hand for the advancement of righteousness and the Kingdom of Heaven on earth.

## CHRONOLOGY.

**1786.** Annapolis Convention, September.
Shays's Rebellion.
**1787.** Northwest Territory organized.
Constitution framed, September 17.
**1788.** Constitution ratified by the ninth State, June 21.
**1789.** Washington inaugurated President, April 30.
**1791.** Establishment of the first Bank of the United States.
**1793.** Invention of the cotton-gin.
Laying of the corner-stone of the Capitol.
**1794.** Victory of General Wayne, November
Whiskey Insurrection.
**1795.** Ratification of Jay's Treaty.
**1797.** Adams inaugurated President, March 4.
**1798.** Difficulties with France.
Alien and sedition laws.
**1799.** Death of Washington, December 14.
**1800.** Congress meets at the new Capitol.

**1801.** Jefferson inaugurated President, March 4.
War with Tripoli.
**1803.** Purchase of Louisiana, April 30.
**1804.** Lewis and Clark's expedition.
**1805.** Peace with Tripoli.
**1806.** Conspiracy of Burr.
European blockade by Great Britain, May 16.
Berlin decree, November 21.
**1807.** Chesapeake and Leopard, June.
Trial trip of the Clermont.
English orders in council.
Milan Decree, December 17.
Embargo Act, December.
**1808.** Foreign slave-trade forbidden.
**1809.** Non-intercourse Act, February.
Madison inaugurated President, March 4.
**1811.** President and Little Belt, May 16.
Battle of Tippecanoe, November 7.
**1812.** Declaration of war, June 18.
Surrender of Detroit, August 16.
Constitution and Guerrière, August 19.
Battle of Queenstown Heights, October 13.
Wasp and Frolic, October 18.
United States and Macedonian, October 25.
Constitution and Java, December 29.
**1813.** Shannon and Chesapeake, June 1.
Battle of Lake Erie, September 10.
Battle of the Thames, October 5.
**1814.** Battle of Chippewa, July 5.
Battle of Lundy's Lane, July 25.
Burning of Washington, August 25.
Battle of Lake Champlain, September 11.
Attack on Fort McHenry, September 13.
Hartford Convention, December 15.
Treaty of Ghent, December 24.
**1815.** Battle of New Orleans, January 8.
**1816.** Charter of the second United States Bank.
**1817.** Monroe inaugurated President, March 4.
**1818.** Jackson captures Pensacola.
**1819.** Purchase of Florida.
**1823.** The "Monroe Doctrine."
**1824.** Protective tariff.
**1825.** Completion of the Erie Canal.

# Blackboard Analysis.

**Presidents**

- J. Q. Adams . . . . . 1825–1829.
- Jackson . . . . . 1829–1837.
- Van Buren . . . . . 1837–1841.
- Harrison and Tyler . . . 1841–1845.
- Polk . . . . . 1845–1849.
- Taylor and Fillmore . . 1849–1853.
- Pierce . . . . . 1853–1857.
- Buchanan . . . . . 1857–1861.

**Matters of Importance**

- Growth.
- National Bank.
- Tariffs.
- Nullification.
- Treaties.
- Oregon.
- Texas.
- Mexico.
- Slavery
  - Growth.
  - Sectional Divisions.
  - Compromises.
  - Party Issues.
  - Secession.

**Lesser Affairs**

- Georgia Indians.
- Office-holders.
- Rebellions.
- Mormons.
- Gold Discovery.
- Temperance.
- Japan.
- Naturalization.

**Parties**

- Democratic . . . . . 1797–
- Whig . . . . . 1828–1853.
- Republican . . . . . 1854–
- Free Soil . . . . . 1848–1854.
- Anti-Mason . . . . . 1833–1837.
- American . . . . . 1853–1857.

**States**

- Arkansas . . . . . 1836.
- Michigan . . . . . 1837.
- Florida . . . . . 1845.
- Texas . . . . . 1845.
- Iowa . . . . . 1846.
- Wisconsin . . . . . 1848.
- California . . . . . 1850.
- Minnesota . . . . . 1858.
- Oregon . . . . . 1859.
- Kansas . . . . . 1861.

## SECTION X.

### THE NATION THREATENED. 1825–1861.

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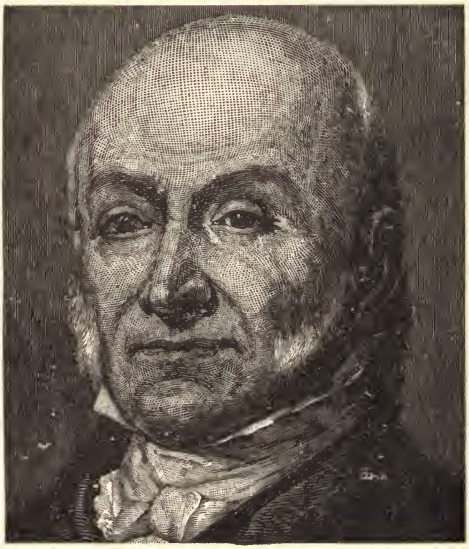
# CHAPTER LXI.

### JOHN QUINCY ADAMS. 1825-1829.

**462. Indians in Georgia.** — In 1802, when Georgia ceded portions of the future States of Alabama and Mississippi to the United States, the Federal government agreed to remove the Indians from the State of Georgia as fast as possible. Year by year land was bought of the Indians, until in 1824 the Creeks and Cherokees refused to sell any more. In February, 1825, the Creeks were tricked into a sale of their lands, and an attempt was immediately made to take possession. President Adams ordered a delay, and early in 1826 a second treaty was made, whereby the Creeks sold their land, and agreed to emigrate to new homes beyond the Mississippi. The Cherokees were, a few years later, prevailed upon to do the same. The last of the tribe were forcibly removed to the



John Quincy Adams.
(After a painting by Healy, in the Corcoran Art Gallery, Washington, D. C.)

Indian Territory in 1838. During this controversy considerable ill-feeling occurred between Georgia and the United States government. Neither the actions of the State nor those of the United States in relation to the removal of these Indian tribes was creditable, but brought reproach upon our good name.

**463. New Parties.** — The "Era of Good Feeling" ended with the inauguration of Adams. The President made Henry Clay his Secretary of State, and immediately the charge was made that Adams was repaying Clay for the votes which he had received from the friends of the latter. Two parties gradually arose, the friends of Adams and Clay forming one, and those of Jackson, Crawford, and Calhoun the other. The administration party, under the leadership of Clay, espoused the doctrine of protective duties and national improvements, or, as it was called, the "American System." The complete name of the only existing party had been "Democratic-Republican," and as the new parties were formed out of the old, the party which adopted the "American System" took the name "National Republican," and the opposition the name "Democratic."

**John Quincy Adams** was the oldest son of John Adams, the second President. He was born at Braintree, Massachusetts, July 11th, 1767, and died February 23d, 1848. He began his political life at a very early age, accompanying Francis Dana, the ambassador to St. Petersburg, as secretary, when but fourteen. In 1803 Adams was elected to represent Massachusetts in the United States Senate, but was not returned in 1809, because he upheld Jefferson's Embargo Act, which was repugnant to his Federalist constituents. He afterwards held many important positions under Madison and Monroe, was chairman of the committee to negotiate peace after the War of 1812, was minister to London, and Secretary of State.

Two years after his Presidential term of office expired, he was elected to represent his district in the House of Representatives. This position he held during the remaining years of his life. Here he acted independently, considering it a "duty imposed upon him by his peculiar position," inasmuch as he "had spent the greatest portion of his life in the service of the whole nation, and had been honored with their highest trust."

**464. Death of Adams and Jefferson. — July 4th, 1826,** was commemorated as the semi-centennial of the adoption of the Declaration of Independence. The occasion was rendered more notable by the deaths on that day of John Adams and Thomas Jefferson, both signers of the Declaration, and later Presidents of the Union they had helped to form. Each died, supposing that the other was alive, and Adams is reported to have said, "Thomas Jefferson still survives."

**465. The Tariff of 1828.**—Another tariff act was passed during the year 1828, which was based on the idea of "protection to home

1830.

UNITED STATES
IN
1830.
(Andrew Jackson's Administration.)
States.
Territories.
British Possessions.
Spanish Possessions.
1821. After the Ratification of the Treaty with Spain, Florida was organized as a Territory.
1821. Missouri admitted as a Slave State under the Missouri Compromise.
CANADA
LAKE SUPERIOR
LAKE MICHIGAN
LAKE HURON
LAKE ERIE
L. ONTARIO
R. St. Lawrence
TERRITORY OF MICHIGAN
MISSOURI TERRITORY
Michigan Territory to Missouri River after 1831
Mississippi R.
Prairie du Chien
Chicago, 1820
Rock Island, 1826
Peoria
Springfield
Quincy
Columbia 1821
St. Louis
Jefferson City, 1822
MISSOURI 1821
Missouri R.
Ft. Smith
ARKANSAW TERRY.
Little Rock
Memphis
Evansville
Cairo
Ohio R.
Vincennes
Louisville
Frankfort
Bowling Green
Nashville
Knoxville
Chattanooga
Decatur
Columbus
Augusta
Macon, 1822
Tallahassee
Jacksonville
St. Augustine
Pensacola
Appalachicola
Mobile
Natchez
Baton Rouge
New Orleans
Jackson
Vicksburg
Red R.
Sabine R.
MEXICO
By revolution from Spain 1821
LOUISIANA
MISSISSIPPI
ALABAMA
GEORGIA
TERRY OF FLORIDA 1821
TENNESSEE
KENTUCKY
INDIANA
ILLINOIS
OHIO
Cleveland
Wheeling
Columbus
Indianapolis
Cincinnati
Buffalo
Erie
Elmira
Rochester
Syracuse
Oswego
Albany
Troy
Montpelier
Hartford
New Haven
New York
Harrisburg
Pittsburgh
Baltimore
Washington
Lynchburg
Richmond
Danville
Norfolk
Greensboro
Raleigh
Charleston
Savannah
Savannah R.
Columbia
Detroit
NEW YORK
PENNSYLVANIA
MARYLAND
VIRGINIA
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
VERMONT
NEW HAMPSHIRE
MASS.
CONN.
N.J.
NEW JERSEY
DELAWARE
Trenton
Philadelphia
Wilmington
Eastport
Augusta
Portland
Portsmouth
Concord
Boston
MAINE
49°
45°
40°
35°
30°
90°
80°
70°
36°-30'

industries" even more fully than that of 1824. Enormous duties were laid on wool and hemp, and the tariff on lead, iron, and molasses was greatly increased. As different sections of the country produced these articles, a combination was made, and the bill was passed, though unsatisfactory even to those who voted for it. The majority of the votes in favor were from the North, while Southern members opposed the bill. This act received the name of the "Tariff of Abominations." Five of the Southern States protested against the passage of any kind of protective tariff law, and Calhoun, the Vice-President, suggested that South Carolina should declare the act "null and void" within her borders.

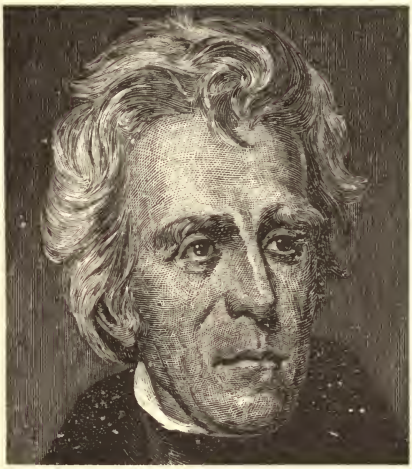
**466. Presidential Election.** — Of the four Presidential candidates in 1824, Clay and Crawford had withdrawn, and the campaign in 1828 was narrowed to the two leading contestants of the earlier election. The National Republican party nominated Adams for President, and Richard Rush of Pennsylvania for Vice-President. The candidates of the Democratic party were Jackson and Calhoun. When the electoral votes were counted, it was found that Jackson had received twice as many votes as Adams.

## CHAPTER LXII.

### NULLIFICATION AND THE UNITED STATES BANK. 1829-1837.

**467. Andrew Jackson.** — Andrew Jackson took the oath of office as President of the United States, March 4th, **1829**. For the first time in the history of the country the President was a man who had had no administrative experience. In 1828, in all but two of the States, the Presidential electors received the direct vote of the people, instead of being chosen by the State legislatures, as had before been the custom. The new President was a man of the people, and intended that the people should rule. For forty years the government had been carried on with very few changes among the employees in the various departments. Now Jackson's motto was "To the victor belong the spoils." There had been previously five changes in the Presidential office, and in 1801 a new party even had

come into power; but in all these years only about one hundred and fifty office-holders had been removed. Before Congress met in December, 1829, Jackson had removed more than a thousand employees, and had filled the positions with men of little or no experience. A very serious injury was done to the business of the government; but by far the greatest evil came from the fact that the so-called "Spoils System" was inaugurated, and every President since Jackson has felt obliged to remove previous office-holders in order to give their places to his own party workers.



Andrew Jackson.

(From a print in the Treasury Department, Washington, D. C.)

**468. Hayne and Webster.** — During the progress of a discussion in **1830** on the subject of the public lands a great debate took place between Senator Hayne of South Carolina and Senator Webster of Massachusetts. Senator Hayne made a vigorous two days' speech, in which he defended nullification and the right of each State to decide for itself as to the constitutionality of any law which it chose to consider. In the course of his speech he cited early suggestions of nullification and secession, as the Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions, and the Hartford Convention. This speech was one of remarkable power and ability. Senator Webster, in a three days' reply, made a speech which to this day is considered one of the finest specimens of oratory to be found in our language. He declared for "liberty and union, now and forever, one and

**Andrew Jackson**, next to Thomas Jefferson, is the hero of the Democratic party. He was popularly called "Old Hickory,"—an appellation which was appropriate, as it illustrated the firmness, even obstinacy, of his character. Jackson's father was a Scotchman, who died soon after Andrew's birth, which occurred March 15th, 1767, in one of the Carolinas, it is not certain which. After beginning the study of law, Jackson removed to Tennessee, where he held, though for a short time only, the successive positions of district solicitor, representative, senator, and Judge of the Supreme Court. He had the unusual good fortune of leaving the Presidency with a greater degree of popularity than he entered it. He spent the rest of his life in quiet seclusion at the Hermitage, near Nashville, and died June 8th, 1845.

inseparable." Men with Webster's views would not peaceably permit any State to refuse to allow the laws of the United States to be carried into execution.

**469. Nullification.** — The tariff question was uppermost in the minds of the people. During the summer of **1832** a tariff act was passed which was much more uniform than that of 1828, and in it the average rate of duties was much lower. Although this act made a reduction in the duties, and therefore did not bear so heavily on the South, it still maintained the principle of protection. It was this principle to which Calhoun was opposed. South Carolina had elected Senator Hayne Governor, and Vice-President Calhoun resigned his position, and was elected to succeed Hayne in the Senate. He urged that the time had come for South Carolina to resort to nullification, and, accordingly, a convention was held at Charleston in November, 1832, which passed such an ordinance. This act declared the tariff acts null and void, forbade the payment of duties under them in that State, and threatened to withdraw from the Union if the Federal government should attempt to enforce these laws in South Carolina.

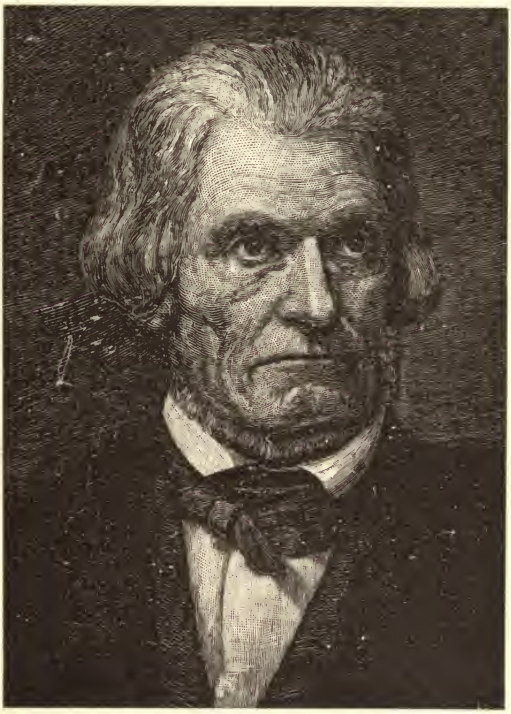
**Daniel Webster**, the "Defender of the Constitution," was born at Salisbury, New Hampshire, January 18th, 1782. Teaching school during the winter months in order to obtain the necessary funds, Daniel made his way through Dartmouth College, and was graduated in 1801. After being admitted to the bar, he entered politics, and was at first Representative in Congress from N. H., then U. S. Senator from Mass. and Secretary of State.

Henry Clay alone could dispute with Webster the position of leader of the Whig party, and each of them was grievously disappointed at failing to win the Presidency. Mr. Webster unsuccessfully sought the nomination from his party in 1844 and again in 1848. He lost popularity by his defence of the Compromise of 1850, and was again defeated in the contest for the nomination in 1852, but Mr. Webster will always hold a very high rank among the statesmen of his country.

**470. A Compromise Tariff.** — When Congress met in December, 1832, President Jackson, in his annual message, asked for special powers, in order that he might more surely enforce the laws. In accordance with these wishes a bill, commonly known as the "Force Bill," was introduced, quickly passed, and became a law. At the same time Congress again turned its attention to the tariff question, and Henry Clay introduced a compromise measure. This bill provided that the tariff should be decreased regularly each alternate year, until in 1842 there should be a uniform duty of twenty per cent upon all imports. This bill abandoned the theory of protection, and was satisfactory to South Carolina. She repealed the "Nullification

Act." The protectionists had, for the present, lost their ground; but, at the same time, South Carolina had failed to obtain support from any other State, in the "State Rights" theory that a State has the power to make void any law of the United States.

**471. Presidential Election.** — The campaign preceding the election of 1832 was in some respects more interesting than any of its predecessors. A new party was in the field, and national nominating conventions were for the first time held.



John C. Calhoun.
(After a daguerreotype.)

In December, 1831, the National Republican Party nominated Henry Clay for President, and in May, 1832, another national convention of the same party adopted a set of resolutions, announcing the principles of their party. This was the "first platform ever adopted by a national convention."

The Democratic Convention nominated Jackson for a second term, and associated with him Martin Van Buren as the candidate for Vice President. South Carolina refused to uphold either of the regular candidates, and gave her vote to John Floyd of Virginia; forty-nine electors voted for Clay, and two hundred and nineteen for Jackson. Van Buren was elected Vice-President.

**472. The United States Bank.** — Early in the first administration of President Washington, Congress had passed an act granting a charter for a United States Bank. President Washington signed the bill, after having obtained the advice of two of his secretaries

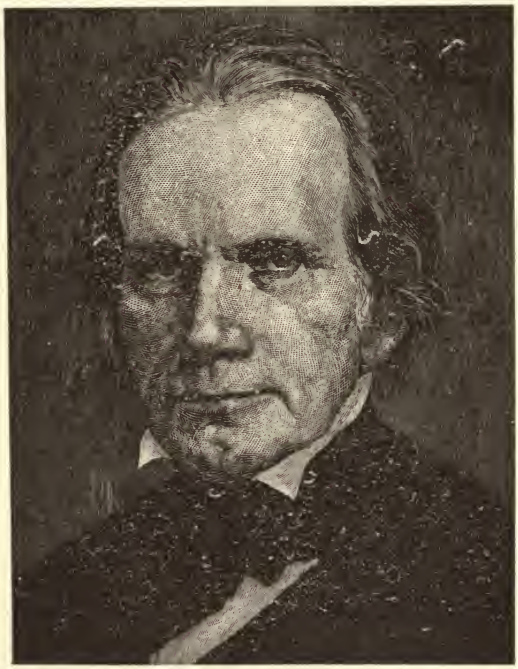
on the question of its constitutionality, and having decided that Hamilton's arguments in its favor were stronger than those of Jefferson against it. In 1816 a new Bank of the United States received from Congress a twenty years' charter, and in 1819 the United States Supreme Court declared this charter to be valid. President Jackson was afraid of the great power of the bank, was opposed to it from principle, could not agree with the decision of the Supreme Court, thought that the bank was working against him politically, and therefore decided to destroy it if he could. In 1832, by a fair majority, a bill was passed by Congress re-chartering the bank. The President responded with a veto message, in which he declared the bank to be "unnecessary, useless, expensive, hostile to the people, and possibly dangerous to the government." The friends of the bank were unable to obtain the necessary two-thirds vote to pass the bill over the veto.

**John Caldwell Calhoun**, a native of South Carolina, was born March 18th, 1782. He was graduated from Yale College, studied law at Litchfield, was admitted to the bar, and was sent to Congress in 1811. Here he became an active member of the war party. He was made Secretary of War by President Monroe, was elected Vice-President by the people in 1824, and re-elected in 1828. In 1816, Mr. Calhoun was in favor of a protective tariff, but soon after he became a firm believer in the doctrine of free trade. He was henceforth a consistent advocate of the principle of the sovereignty of the State, and of the wisdom of the system of slavery. Mr. Calhoun was a man of the greatest integrity of character, and even his political opponents spoke of his worth in the highest terms. He was the first of the trio (Clay, Calhoun, and Webster) to die, his death occurring March 31st, 1850.

**473. Removal of the Deposits.** — The Bank of the United States was a private corporation, having a charter from the national government; but it was also more than this. It was the depository of the funds of the United States, and it was the agent which the government used for doing its financial business. Perhaps half of the deposits in the bank consisted of the money of the federal government. The President therefore gave it the severest blow possible when he ordered that hereafter the government should deposit no more funds in the Bank of the United States, but, instead, that they should be loaned to certain specified State banks. This bold act of the President nearly caused a panic in the money market, and brought upon him a censure from

**William Wirt** of Virginia was brought forward by a convention of Anti-Masons. A popular craze had been started against the secret order of Free-Masons, and a party had been formed whose main idea was to prevent any member of that order from obtaining public office. In the election of 1833 the Anti-Masonic party carried the State of Vermont only, and in a few years ceased to exist.

Congress; but the President's plans were effective, and in 1836 the bank quietly ceased to do business under the charter. No United States Bank has since been chartered.



Henry Clay.
(After a daguerreotype.)

**474. Surplus Revenue.** —The heated discussion with regard to the bank called attention to the fact that there was a constantly increasing surplus in the United States Treasury. Each year the revenue was in excess of the expenses of the government. What should be done with the surplus? The majority of Congress as well as the President were opposed to appropriating it for internal improvements; no one desired to change the Compromise Tariff of 1833 so as to reduce the revenue. As the best possible thing to do under the circumstances, as they thought, Congress voted to distribute the surplus among the States. Accordingly, twenty-eight million dollars were thus divided before the increased expenditure and the decreased revenue brought the surplus to an end.

**475. Minor Matters.** —Two new States were admitted during Jackson's administration, — Arkansas, June 15th, 1836, and Michigan, January 26th, 1837. The great industrial period of the United States was fast approaching, and the age of invention was dawning during these administra

**Arkansas**, or the "Bear State," was the third to be admitted from the Louisiana Province. It was given a territorial government in 1819, having been a portion of Missouri Territory up to that time. Like the other Southern States, it has devoted its attention to agriculture, but it is now rapidly advancing in the development of its material wealth. The census of 1890 showed a population of over a million, a gain of more than forty per cent over the census of 1880.

tions (¶ 728). In 1830 the first steam railroad was opened in England. Before the end of Jackson's terms there were about two thousand miles of steam railroads in this country. Canals became

An Early Railroad Train.

of less importance, and the canal fever soon came to an end. Steam navigation upon the rivers and lakes was greatly increasing, and many regular routes were established. Several discoveries and inventions were of importance; among the most noteworthy of these were the use of anthracite coal for making steam, the machine-reaper, and friction matches.

**Michigan** was first settled by French Jesuit missionaries, early in the seventeenth century. It became a part of the Northwest Territory in 1787, and received little attention until about 1810. The first act of the British, in the War of 1812, was to capture Michigan. The "Wolverine State" has great wheat and oat fields, large apple and peach orchards, and immense lumber regions. Michigan is especially noted for vast copper and iron mines, as well as valuable salt-works. The State ranks ninth in population, having more than two million inhabitants.

**476. Presidential Elections.** — Martin Van Buren was the choice of President Jackson to be his successor. Accordingly, he was nominated by the Democrats in a national convention at Baltimore early in 1835. Richard M. Johnson of Kentucky was associated with him as the candidate for Vice-President. The National Republicans had now taken the name of "Whigs." William Henry Harrison was the candidate of a large portion, though many refused to vote for Harrison, claiming that Daniel Webster was entitled to the nomination.

When the votes were counted it was found that Van Buren had received 170, a majority, Harrison 73, White, a Democrat opposing Van Buren, 26, Webster 14, and W. P. Mangum, of North Carolina, 11. Johnson failed to receive a majority of the electoral votes, and was elected by the Senate.

# CHAPTER LXIII.

## FINANCIAL PANICS AND THE SUB-TREASURY. 1837-1841.

**477. Wild-Cat Banks.** — One of the first results of the overthrow of the Bank of the United States was the formation of a vast number of State banks throughout the country. Many of these had no money and no financial standing, and fraudulently attempted to enrich their stockholders by issuing paper money which they knew they never could redeem. Such institutions were called "wild-cat" banks; and as soon as one of them failed because of inability to redeem its notes, its stockholders would simply form another. The banks with whom the government placed its deposits were thereby on a better footing than the others, and were commonly called "pet banks."

**Martin Van Buren** was born at Kinderhook, New York, December 5th, 1782. He was admitted to the bar at an early age and rapidly rose in political life. In 1821 he was appointed United States Senator; in 1828 he became Governor of New York; he was Secretary of State under Jackson and later Vice-President. Van Buren was defeated for re-election, his opponent in 1836 being victorious in 1840. He received nearly enough votes at the Democratic Convention in 1844, but not quite sufficient to receive the nomination. In 1848 he was the candidate of the Free-Soil party. He died July 24th, 1862.

**478. Panic of 1837.** — The President issued a "Specie Circular," which directed that only gold or silver should be received as payment for the public lands. The notes of the wild-cat banks were therefore useless for this purpose, and at once a panic ensued. Money had become scarce, and the prices of the necessities of life became very high. Bread riots took place in New York City, and business failures were announced all over the country. Soon all the banks of the country found themselves unable to redeem their notes with specie, and bank failures became too nearly universal. The year 1837 was long remembered as the most disastrous in the history of the country.

**479. The Sub-Treasury.** — When President Jackson withdrew the deposits from the Bank of the United States he found it necessary to place them in State banks, as there were no other places of deposit. President Van Buren recommended to Congress the establishment of sub-treasuries, as they were called, and a bill for this

purpose was introduced. This plan, sometimes called the "Independent Treasury" scheme, was "to make the government the custodian in its own vaults of its own funds." After repeated failures to pass this bill through Congress, its friends were successful in 1840, and from that time, with a short intermission, this plan has been the "permanent system of federal financial administration."

**480. Presidential Election.** — The panics that occurred during Van Buren's administration caused a reaction against the Democratic party, which had passed the laws which many thought had been the direct cause of the financial distress. The campaign of 1840 was fought with the same leaders as that of four years before. Both parties were united, however, as they had not been in the other election, and the contest was a direct one between the principles of the two parties. A remarkably enthusiastic contest followed the nomination of candidates, which has since been known as the "log-cabin and hard-cider" campaign. Harrison and Tyler, or "Tippecanoe and Tyler too," received nearly four-fifths of the electoral vote, and were declared elected.

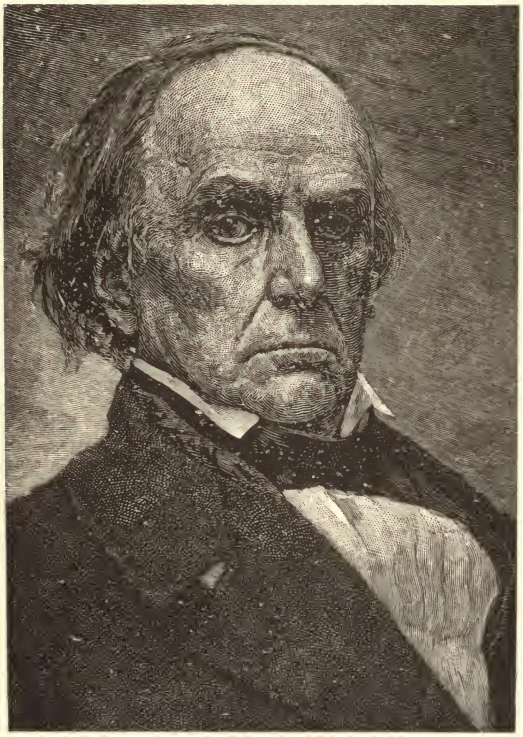
## CHAPTER LXIV.

### TEXAS AND OREGON. 1841-1845.

**481. The President's Death.** — March 4th, **1841,** President Harrison took the oath of office, and April 4th he died in the White House. Vice-President Tyler accordingly became President, and the affairs of the government went on without a break. The new President was not, however, in harmony with the leaders of the Whig party, and discord soon arose between them. The most important act of the new Congress was to establish a National Bank. Though this was done by the Whigs, the President's own party, he quickly vetoed the bill, declaring it to be unconstitutional. This angered the party leaders, and, after two or three other vetoes of their favorite measures, they publicly declared him to be no longer a Whig, and announced that thereafter they should treat him as a political enemy. Throughout the four years of President Tyler's

term the Whigs and the President were opposed to each other on nearly every question.

**482. The Ashburton Treaty.** — The members of President Harrison's cabinet were retained by President Tyler; but all of them, except Webster, the Secretary of State, resigned when the issue was made between the President and the Whig party. Daniel Webster remained for a time in order to complete the negotiation of a treaty with Great Britain. A large number of troublesome disputes had arisen between the two countries; but the most important was the unsettled boundary between the United States and Canada. By the treaty which Webster succeeded in making, the entire boundary line was definitely settled as far west as the Rocky Mountains, exactly as it is to-day. Lord Ashburton was sent over from England for the express purpose of making a treaty, and therefore it has received the name of the Webster-Ashburton Treaty.



**Daniel Webster.**
(After a daguerreotype.)

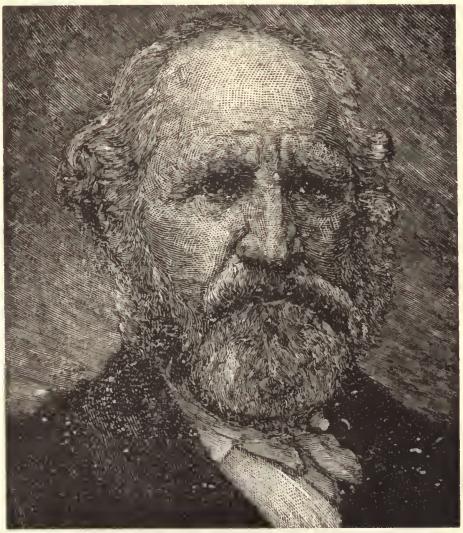
**483. Texas.** — Mention has been made of the revolt of the Spanish American colonies (¶ 449) during the earlier part of the century. Among these was the new nation of Mexico, and one of the constituent parts of this republic was the State of Texas and Coahuila. This State bordered upon Louisiana, and very soon many Southerners, taking their slaves with them, moved into Texas. By 1835 the number of Americans was so greatly in excess of the Spaniards

that Texas revolted from Mexico. Under the lead of General Samuel Houston, a desperate struggle was carried on for nearly a year. In 1836 Houston attacked Santa Anna, and a severe battle took place at San Jacinto. Although the Mexican force was nearly double that of the Texans, Houston totally defeated Santa Anna. This victory placed the new State upon a firm footing, and Texas became an independent republic. Within a year several of the leading nations recognized the new State, and her independence seemed to be fairly established. Almost immediately the new government applied for annexation to the United States.

**William Henry Harrison,** known as "Tippecanoe," because of his victory over the Indians at that place, was born at Berkeley, Virginia, February 9th, 1773. He held many high positions in the army and was finally elected President by the Whigs in 1840.

He was succeeded by John Tyler, who was also a native of Virginia. Tyler had previously been a member of the States Rights party, and although elected by the Whigs, retained many of this party's principles. He was born March 29th, 1790, and died January 17th, 1862.

**484. Annexation of Texas.**—The slave-owners of the South had begun to realize that most of the territory south of the compromise parallel of 36° 30′ had been made into slave States, while there was still much left north of the line out of which free States could be carved. It would be greatly to their advantage to admit the applicant at once. President Van Buren was opposed to the idea, and the matter was left for a more appropriate season. President Tyler thought differently, however, and in the latter part of his term sent to the Senate a treaty annexing Texas to the Union. The treaty was so suddenly presented to a hostile Senate that it refused to ratify it. After the Presidential election had resulted in favor of the Democrats, both houses of Congress, in spite of very great objection from the Northern members, passed

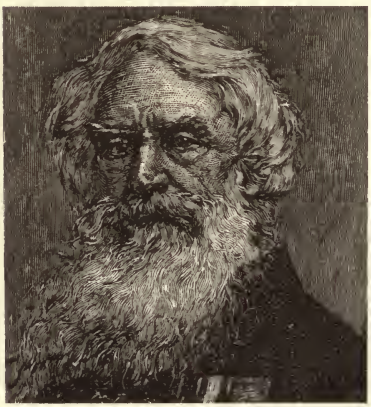


Samuel Houston.

resolutions approving "reannexation." The definite annexation of the new State was deferred until the Texan government had accepted the terms of Congress (¶ 488). Meanwhile Florida entered the Union on the last day of President Tyler's term, March 3d, 1845.

**Florida.** — On Easter Sunday (Pascha Floridum), Ponce de Leon discovered land and named it Florida. The first permanent settlement within the United States was made at St. Augustine, in 1565. The province changed from Spanish into English hands in 1763, and back again in 1783. The history of the territory until its purchase in 1819 has been told. "The productions of Florida are of an essentially tropical character." Most of the State possesses a very agreeable climate, and it is therefore a favorite winter resort. It has had a remarkable development during the last few years, which is shown by its greater gain per cent. in valuation than that of any other State east of the Mississippi. Its population in 1890 was about four hundred thousand.

**485. Oregon.** — West of the Rocky Mountains and north of Mexico was a tract of land which had received the name of the Oregon country. Spain, England, and the United States had considered this region to be a portion of their territory, presenting claims that were of more or less value. Before the year 1844, however, Spain had ceded her claims to the United States. Besides, the American nation claimed the region because of the discovery of the Columbia River by Captain Gray in 1792, the exploration of the river by Lewis and Clark in 1805 and 1806, and the settlement at Astoria in 1811. On the other hand, England claimed prior exploration and settlement, and thus the matter had stood for many years. When the Presidential campaign of 1844 was fought on the question of the annexation of Texas, the Democratic party coupled with this the proposition to demand the whole territory of Oregon from England. The cry was "Fifty-four forty or fight," which meant to hold the territory against England as far north as 54° 40′, or fight her for it. In 1846 the two nations agreed by treaty that the parallel of 49° should be continued westward to the channel opposite Vancouver's Island. Dr. Marcus Whitman had practically saved this country to us by an emigration, brought over in 1843. (See Appendix J.)



**Samuel F. B. Morse.**
(From an engraving in the Treasury Department Washington, D. C.)

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

**486. Dorr Rebellion.** — A civil war broke out in Rhode Island in May, 1842, which had its origin in a revolutionary attempt to replace the charter of Charles II. (¶ 67) by a more modern and democratic constitution. The limitation of the suffrage to landowners and their eldest sons, and the inequalities of the representation in the General Assembly, were the principal objectionable features of the government which had grown up under the charter. The agitation for reform began soon after the presidential election of 1840, and in the winter of 1841–1842 resulted in the formation of two constitutions. One, framed by a convention, which had been legally called by the legislature, was defeated by the people, while the other, prepared by the suffragists in an assembly, summoned and held without the form of law, was declared by them to have been adopted.

**The Magnetic Telegraph.** — The first practical experiment with the magnetic telegraph took place in the year 1844, when Congress established a trial line between Washington and Baltimore. Thirty thousand dollars was appropriated for this purpose, and the telegraphic system of Samuel F. B. Morse, which had been patented in 1837, was used. The first words sent over this wire were "What hath God wrought!" The telegraph, with the railroad, marks the beginning of a new era in the prosperity of the country.

A State election was held under the new constitution at which the suffrage party alone participated. Thomas W. Dorr was declared elected Governor, and an entire State government was chosen. The "law and order" party, then in power, considered this election illegal, and chose Samuel W. King governor, at an election held in accordance with the charter requirements. The two governments were organized, and a bitter struggle seemed imminent. President Tyler declared in favor of the charter authorities, and sent United States troops to Fort Adams, to be in readiness if needed. After two months of excitement the "Dorr Rebellion" collapsed, and order was restored. A third constitution was prepared, which granted most of the desired changes. It was adopted almost unanimously, and put in operation in May, 1843. Dorr surrendered to the State authorities, was tried for high treason, convicted and sentenced to

**Patroon War.** — When the Dutch settled New Netherland large tracts of land were granted to members of the wealthier class, called patroons. The system of disposing of these lands to the tenants was a peculiar one, in which the tenants partially owned them, but were compelled to pay a certain fee to the patroon. This custom continued until the middle of this century, and during Tyler's administration many "anti-rent" riots took place, and the State authorities were compelled to call out the militia to put down the Patroon War. Little by little the lands were sold without the fees, and absolute ownership was obtained.

imprisonment for life. After a confinement of one year he was set free under a general amnesty act, and his civil rights were restored to him a few years later.

**487. Presidential Election.** — In 1844 the Whig National Convention, after adopting a platform, nominated Henry Clay of Kentucky and Theodore Frelinghuysen of New York as its candidates. The Democratic Convention failed to renominate Van Buren, who had been a leading candidate, and finally put in nomination James K. Polk of Tennessee and George M. Dallas of Pennsylvania. A very closely contested election resulted, in which the Democratic candidates were successful. This result was due very largely to a small number of voters in the North, who had belonged to the Whig party, but who refused to vote for Clay because of his doubtful stand on the question of the annexation of Texas.

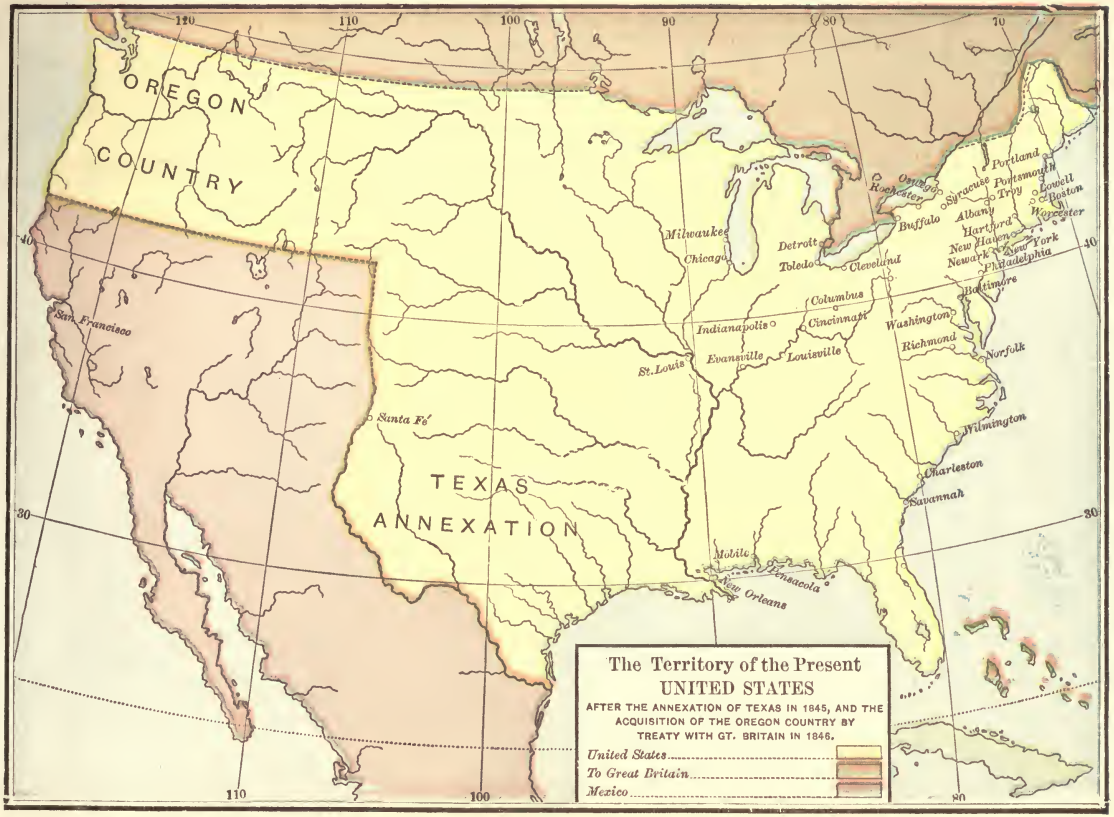
## CHAPTER LXV.

### WAR WITH MEXICO. 1845–1849.

**488. The Texan Boundary.** — The Republic of Mexico had not acknowledged the independence of Texas, and would not accept the boundary lines that Texas claimed. The disputed boundary question was whether the new State should include any of the province of Coahuila, or not, and if it did what portion. Texas claimed to the west as far as the Rio Grande, and north to the border line between Mexico and the United States. Mexico held that the western boundary of her State, Texas, was the Nueces River. When, December 29th, 1845, Congress admitted Texas into the Union, the United States was pledged to uphold the claims of Texas as against Mexico.

**James Knox Polk** was a native of North Carolina. His father intended to make a merchant of him; but as the son was opposed to business life, he finally allowed him to enter college and to study law. He showed great abilities in his chosen line, became Speaker of the House of Representatives, Governor of Tennessee, and President of the United States. Mr. Polk was born in 1795, and died in 1849.

**489. Declaration of War.** — President Polk had taken the necessary steps to defend the disputed territory from any occupation by the

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Mexicans. During the summer of 1845 he had sent General Zachary Taylor (¶ 500), with a large force, to take possession of the country between the Nueces and the Rio Grande. Obeying these orders of the President, Taylor seized Corpus Christi and awaited further orders or developments. During the spring of 1846 the President took the responsibility of ordering General Taylor to proceed to the Rio Grande. Taylor moved his forces to the mouth of the Rio Grande and was there requested by the Mexican general, Arista, to retire to the Nueces. Taylor refused, and therefore a portion of the Mexican force crossed the river, and on April 23d, 1846, attacked and captured a small detachment of the American army. Thus the first blood was shed. As soon as President Polk received intelligence of the skirmish, he sent a message to Congress declaring, "Mexico has passed the boundary of the United States, and shed American blood upon American soil. War exists, and exists by the act of Mexico herself." **May 13th, 1846**, a formal declaration that war existed with Mexico was passed by Congress.

**Texas** is the largest State in the Union, and has a larger area than any nation in Europe, except Russia. The State ranks among the foremost in the production of cotton, cattle, sheep, horses, and sugar. About a third of the State is agricultural, while the remainder is pastoral. The "Lone Star State" is sixth or seventh in population, having two and a quarter million inhabitants.

**490. Taylor's Victories.** — The first battle of the war occurred a few days earlier. As General Taylor moved his forces along the river to relieve one of his subordinates, he met General Arista with a force of

twice or three times his own. On May 8th, a well-fought engagement took place at this point, Palo Alto, in which Ringgold's "Flying Artillery" quickly won the victory. The next morning the enemy retreated and took up a strong position at Resaca de la Palma, to await an attack from General Taylor. This attack was made May 9th, and after a desperate fight the Mexicans were driven back to the Rio Grande, which they crossed in much confusion. In these two battles the enemy lost about one-quarter of the force. Nine days later the American army crossed the river and captured the town of Matamoras.

**491. Monterey and Buena Vista.** — General Taylor remained at Matamoras waiting for orders and re-enforcements until September. On the 5th of this month he started on a march westward, and on the 19th reached and attacked the town of Monterey. The American force besieged and stormed this town for four days, and on the 24th the Mexicans surrendered, being permitted to evacuate with the honors of war.

General Winfield Scott.
(After a daguerreotype.)

The force under General Taylor was greatly reduced during the early winter, many of his men being sent away for various purposes. The Mexican general, Santa Anna, learning of this fact, sent a large force to annihilate the American army, now diminished to about one-third the size of his own. General Taylor chose the narrow mountain pass of Buena Vista, and here awaited the attack. The battle took place February 23d and 24th, 1847, and resulted in the retreat of Santa Anna on the next day. When he reached the city of Mexico, his army was barely half as large as when he set out. This glorious victory at Buena Vista ended the war in that section of Mexico.

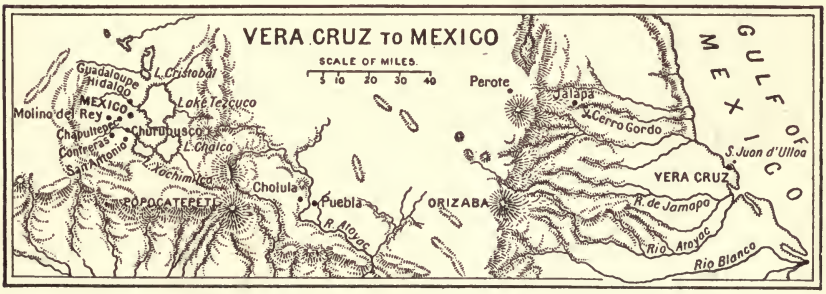
**492. New Mexico and California.** — While General Taylor was entering Mexico from Texas, other expeditions were made against New Mexico and California. During the summer of 1846 General

Kearney marched against Santa Fé, one of the oldest of the Spanish towns now within the limits of the United States, and captured it without opposition. He left Colonel Doniphan here, and then set out for California. Doniphan moved south and captured the city of Chihuahua. Thus the whole territory of New Mexico was in the hands of the Americans.

**Winfield Scott**, the second man to be honored with the title of Lieutenant-General, was born June 13th, 1786. He first became prominent in the battle of Queenstown Heights, October 13th, 1812. He was made major-general because of his bravery in the battles of Chippewa and Lundy's Lane. His greatest achievement as a general was his campaign in Mexico in 1847. The Whigs nominated him for the Presidency in 1852, but he was unable to revive that party, which was fast passing away. In spite of the secession of his native State, Virginia, he remained at the head of the Union armies until he was compelled to retire on account of his advanced age. He lived to see the nation victorious, and died May 29th, 1866.

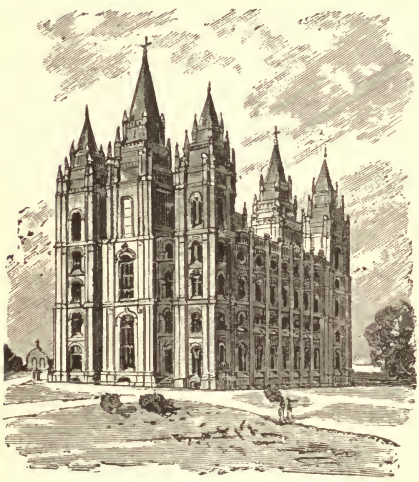
Several years before this time John C. Fremont (¶ 528) had been sent out to explore various parts of the Rocky Mountains. In 1842 he crossed the mountains; in 1843 he explored the Great Salt Lake and travelled for some time in California; in 1846 he was ready to assist in snatching the territory from the Mexicans. Commodores Sloat and Stockton were the leaders, together with Captain Fremont, in the capture of California. The towns of Monterey, Los Angeles, and San Francisco surrendered to the Americans with but little resistance, and Mexico had lost California also.

**493. A New Plan.** — The government, perhaps for political reasons, decided to intrust the most important campaign of the war to General Winfield Scott, instead of to General Taylor. General




Scott was sent with a new army and a portion of Taylor's to attack the city of Vera Cruz, and from that point to march against the city of Mexico. With a force of about twelve thousand men, the new commander landed at Vera Cruz on the night of the 9th of

March, 1847, and immediately began a siege of the city. The town was bombarded for nine days and on the 29th surrendered, with its entire garrison.



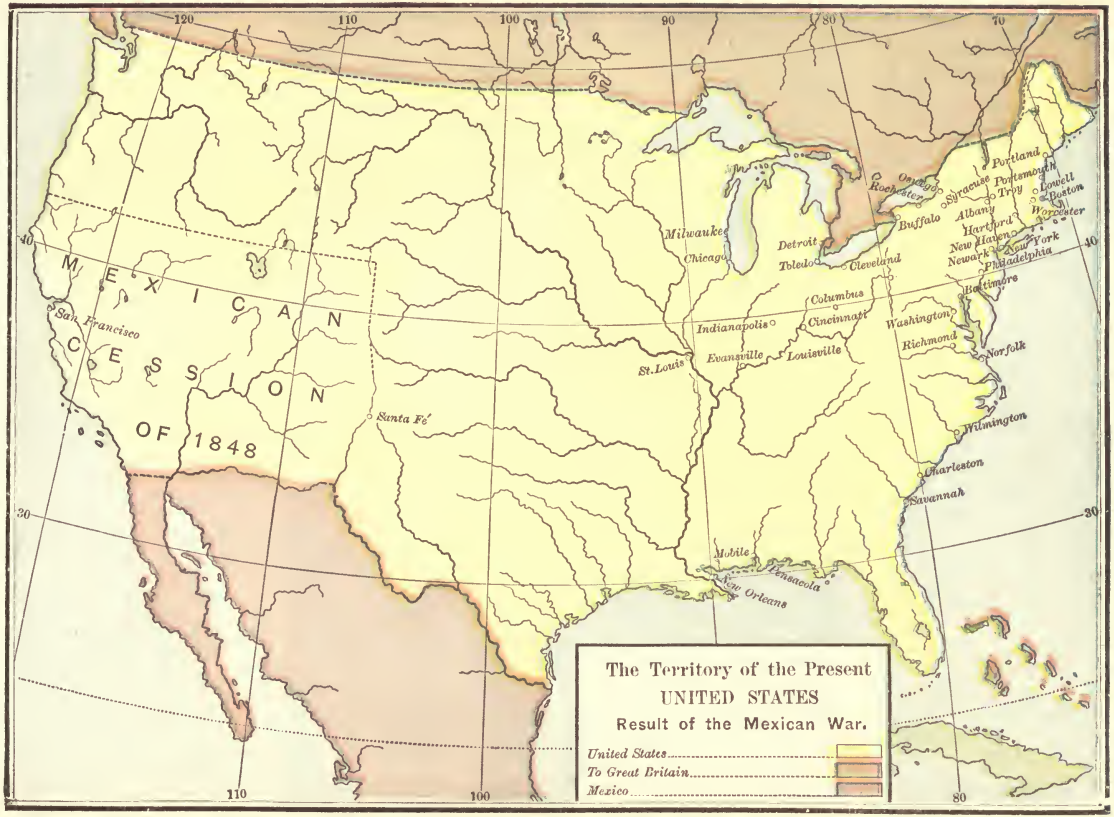
The Mormon Temple.

**494. On to Mexico.**— In April, General Scott started on his march to the city of Mexico. Santa Anna strengthened his forces after the battle of Buena Vista, and advanced from Mexico and awaited Scott at the pass of Cerro Gordo. Here he was attacked on the 17th of April, and after a two days' battle, his army fled in a rout, though the Mexican force was fully one-third greater than that of Scott. Moving on to Puebla, General Scott placed his troops in summer quarters. Receiving re-enforcements, he advanced in August, and soon arrived in sight of the capital, without fighting another battle.

**495. Capture of Mexico.** — The city of Mexico is situated in a deep, semi-circular valley. Around the city was a "serpent-like line of barriers, natural and artificial, as impregnable to assault as four months of toil could make them." August 20th, the fighting began, and a series of brilliant victories took place until at evening the Mexicans were all shut up within the city. Day by day the Americans drew nearer and nearer Mexico, capturing the strong fortress of Chapultepec by storm, September 13th, and on the next day entering the capital and ending the war.

**496. The Wilmot Proviso.**— December 28th, 1846, Iowa was admitted to the Union as the twenty-ninth

**Mormons.** — Joseph Smith and, later, Brigham Young were the leaders of a new religious denomination, "The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints," commonly called "Mormons." Smith claimed to have found the "Book of Mormon," which, with other revelations, added to the Christian Bible, was the foundation upon which the new religion was built. The Mormons were driven from Missouri because of the hostility of their neighbors, and settled in Nauvoo, Illinois. Smith was killed by a mob, and his followers then fled across the plains toward the west. Young led this band of emigrants to Utah, which was at that time a part of Mexico. Here, in a sterile valley, not far from Great Salt Lake, they made a permanent settlement, and in July, 1847, hoisted the stars and stripes from "Ensign Peak." Salt Lake City is now in the midst of a fertile valley made productive by irrigation.

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State, and Wisconsin May 29th, 1848, as the thirtieth. The free and slave States were still even in number, and the North looked with apprehension upon a war waged, as it seemed to them, for the express purpose of increasing the slave territory. When the proposition was brought up in Congress, early in the war, to appropriate money for the purchase of lands from Mexico, in the event of her vanquishment, which no one seemed to doubt, an effort was made to prevent such land from being devoted to slavery. David Wilmot, a member of Congress from Pennsylvania, offered an amendment

The City of Mexico.

to the bill under discussion. This provided that in any territories that might be obtained from Mexico, "neither slavery nor involuntary servitude should exist." This amendment was called the "Wilmot Proviso," and barely failed to become a law. The failure to pass this proviso angered the opponents of slavery, and the very proposal of the bill angered the slave-owners. The slavery contest was definitely begun.

**497. The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo.** — The fall of Mexico necessitated a treaty of peace, which was finally signed, **February 2d, 1848,**

at the little village of Guadalupe Hidalgo. One of the most important articles of this treaty was that which settled the boundary between the two countries. Mexico yielded Texas, made the Rio Grande the boundary, and sold to the United States the two entire provinces of California and New Mexico, for the sum of fifteen million dollars, and whatever debts were due from Mexico to the citizens of the United States. This treaty was ratified, and peace was restored.

**Iowa**, or the "Hawkeye State," was originally a portion of the Louisiana Territory. It was afterwards included in Missouri Territory, then in Michigan Territory, and later in Wisconsin Territory. In 1838 it was given a separate territorial organization, the first settlement having been made fifty years earlier. The soil of the State is exceedingly fertile, and the climate healthful. In the production of Indian corn and wheat, it holds a high rank among the agricultural States. Like most of the States of that section, Iowa has had a remarkable growth. A population of forty thousand in 1840 has become, fifty years later, a population of two millions.

**498. Parties.** — A new party was formed near the close of President Polk's term, called the "Free-Soilers." Many of the members of this party were those who felt that since the Wilmot Proviso had failed, the outlook for any future freedom from the chains of slavery was very meagre. They declared for "free soil for a free people." The policy of the party was not to make an attempt to interfere with slavery in the States or to change the Constitution for this purpose, but simply to forbid slavery forever in any of the territories. In 1848 this party nominated ex-President Van Buren for President, and Charles Francis Adams of Massachusetts for Vice-President.

**Wisconsin**, or the "Badger State," was the last of the five States to be formed from the Northwest Territory. Very little immigration to the territory took place before 1825. The southern portion of the State has most fertile soil, while the northern part is covered with vast forests. The advantages for manufacturing are excellent, and great quantities of iron ore are extracted from its mines. Its population is now fully two millions.

**499. Presidential Election.**— The Democratic National Convention, after declaring that Congress had no power to interfere with slavery anywhere, nominated Lewis Cass of Michigan for President and William O. Butler of Kentucky for Vice-President. The Whig National Convention was afraid of the slavery question, and adopted no platform. Their candidates were Zachary Taylor and Millard Fillmore of New York. General Taylor proved to be a popular candidate, and was elected, receiving 163 votes to 127 for Cass.

In 1853 the "Gadsden Purchase" added nearly 50,000 square miles to our domain. It cost us ten million dollars.

# CHAPTER LXVI.

## THE COMPROMISE OF 1850.

**500. California.** — One of the first matters to be brought to the attention of the new President was the question concerning the lands which had been purchased from Mexico. The portion of this purchase which lay upon the Pacific Coast was called California; and before Congress was ready to provide a territorial government, it made application to be admitted as a State. During the years 1848 and 1849 an unprecedented migration took place from all portions of the United States to the mountains of California. Around Cape Horn, across the Isthmus of Panama, and even over land by caravans, thousands were drawn to the new land by the report that gold had been discovered in great abundance. As early as the autumn of 1849 there were more than one hundred thousand inhabitants in the territory, a State Constitution had been formed, State officers had been chosen, and application had been made to Congress for admission.

**General Zachary Taylor,** the twelfth President, was born November 24th, 1784, in Orange County, Virginia. He served with distinction in the War of 1812, the Black Hawk War, and the war with the Seminole Indians. On the outbreak of the troubles with Mexico he was given the command of the forces in Texas. During the war he met with great success, which led to his nomination for President by the Whig party in 1848. General Taylor was familiarly known as "Old Rough and Ready." He died in office, July 9th, 1850.

He was succeeded by the Vice-President, Millard Fillmore, who had previously been well known in the House of Representatives as a supporter of John Quincy Adams and as Chairman of the Ways and Means Committee. In 1856 Fillmore was nominated for the Presidency by the American party. He was born in Cayuga County, New York, January 7th, 1800, and died March 8th, 1874.

**501. The "Omnibus Bill."**—While the search for gold was taking place, political leaders, both in the North and in the South, were discussing the future of the Mexican purchase, as well as the ever-present question of slavery. Bitter dissensions were common, and threats of secession were heard on all sides. For the third time Henry Clay came forward as "The Great Compromiser." A special committee, of which he was chairman, presented three bills, one of which has received the title of the "Omnibus Bill," because it contained so many unconnected subjects. At first it failed of passage, but

afterwards it was divided, and each section became a law very much as Clay proposed.

Washing out Gold.

**502. Compromise of 1850.** — These bills, though passed separately, have always been called the "Compromise Measures of **1850**." California was admitted as a free State September 9th, 1850; the rest of the Mexican Cession was divided into two territories, Utah and New Mexico, with or without slavery as each should decide; and Texas was paid ten million dollars for a large portion of her lands. Two other matters were settled at the same time; namely, that slavery was allowed to continue within the District of Columbia, but the slave-trade was prohibited, and a new and strict Fugitive-Slave Law was enacted.

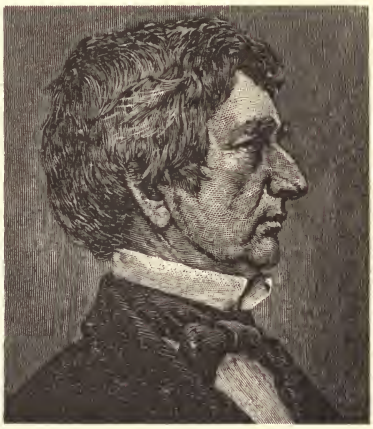
**503. The Fugitive-Slave Law.** — The Constitution of the United States declared that every person held to service or labor in one State, and escaping to another, should be delivered up by that State. In 1793 Congress passed the necessary laws to enforce this portion of the Constitution, thus enacting a Fugitive-Slave Law. This law remained in force until 1850, when it was superseded by the more stringent law of that year. The South claimed that the earlier act was not properly enforced, and that no provision had been made to compel its enforcement. The antislavery leaders objected strongly to certain features of this new act, especially the clauses which allowed the

**Discovery of Gold.** — In the early portions of 1848, a Swiss immigrant in California, Captain Sutter by name, began to build a saw-mill. He had established himself on a branch of the Sacramento River, some fifty miles east of Sacramento. As the workmen were engaged in digging the mill-race, they came upon certain shining particles which had the appearance of gold. An attempt was made to keep the discovery a secret, but before the finders had ascertained whether the grains were gold or not, the news had reached San Francisco. Some very remarkable "finds" were soon made, and the story spread throughout the country. The name "Forty-niners" was given to the thousands that migrated to California during the year 1849.

person pretending to be the owner simply to affirm that the negro was his property in order to prove his ownership, which forbade the matter to be tried by jury, and which compelled those who morally disbelieved in slavery to assist in enforcing the law. As a result, many riots and rescues took place in various portions of the North, and an organized system of aiding fugitive slaves to escape to Canada was instituted. This has been called "The Underground Railway."

**California.**— The name California originally applied to the whole Pacific coast from about forty-two degrees north latitude to the mouth of the Gulf of California. Lower California was discovered by Mendoza in 1534, and California proper was explored by Cabrillo in 1542. The region remained in Spanish and Mexican hands until conquered in 1846 and purchased in 1848. California contains a great gold-producing region, and since 1848 has furnished a large portion of the world's supply of the "King of Metals." The "Golden State" also possesses great quantities of silver and mercury, besides many other ores. Certain sections of the State are unsurpassed in their agricultural productions. Southern California is especially noted for its delightful climate. The State is rapidly growing, having a million and a half inhabitants. San Francisco, with its three hundred thousand people and its unexcelled harbor, is the metropolis of the Pacific coast.

**504. New Leaders.**— President Taylor died July 9th, 1851, from a fever caused by the heat of the preceding Fourth. Vice-President Fillmore succeeded him. Again the Whigs had lost their President by death, and again the succession was fatal to future party success. During this administration all of the older great political leaders died, leaving the work to be done by younger men. A few months before the death of President Taylor, Calhoun passed away, and during the next Presidential campaign the other two of the great trio, Clay and Webster, also ceased from their labors. The new leaders might be classed as antislavery or as proslavery men. Among the former the most prominent were William H. Seward of New York, Salmon P. Chase of Ohio (¶ 633), and Charles Sumner of Massachusetts (¶ 526). Among the latter, Jefferson Davis of Mississippi (¶ 536), Alexander H. Stephens of Georgia (¶ 537), and Stephen A. Douglas of Illinois (¶ 524) were best known.



**William H. Seward.**
(From a negative in the possession of the U. S. Government.)

**505. Temperance.** — The first "Temperance Societies" were formed about the year 1825. Previous to that time the evils resulting from alcoholic drinks had been constantly on the increase. Almost everybody drank intoxicating liquors, and drunkenness was a prevalent vice. "The American Society for the Promotion of Temperance," formed in 1826, and the "Washingtonian Temperance Society," formed in 1840, were followed by a large number of similar organizations, many of which pledged their members to total abstinence from the use of strong drinks. Thousands were restored to manhood, and incalculable blessings resulted.

**William Henry Seward**, the leader of the Whig party in New York, was born in that State May 16th, 1801. He early began the practice of law, entered politics, and was chosen governor in 1838. He took a leading position among the opponents of slavery, and was sent to the Senate in 1849, at a time when but few antislavery men were to be found in Congress. He naturally joined the Republican party at its formation, and was a leading candidate for the nomination to the Presidency in 1860. Mr. Seward was made Secretary of State by President Lincoln, and he held that responsible position during the war with remarkable ability. He then joined hands with President Johnson, and lost the favor of his former friends. October 10th, 1872, he died at his home in Auburn, New York. Mr. Seward was the author of the phrase, "The Irrepressible Conflict," which he felt must continue until either the free or the slave States were victorious.

**506. Presidential Election.**—As in 1848, so in 1852, there were three national parties in the field. The Democratic National Convention pledged a faithful observance of the compromise measures, and nominated, after a long contest, Franklin Pierce of New Hampshire for President, and William R. King of Alabama for Vice-President. The Whig National Convention approved the compromise measures, and nominated Winfield Scott of Virginia, and William A. Graham of North Carolina as its candidates.

All voters who were opposed to the compromise were compelled to vote for one of the two parties claiming to be in favor of it, or else to throw away their votes on the Free Soil Candidates, Hale and Julian. This party declared for "no more slave States, no more slave territories, no nationalized slavery, and no national legislation for the extradition of slaves." Four States voted for the Whig candidates, and the Democrats carried all the rest. Pierce and King were elected by a vote of 254 electors to 42.

**Maine Law.** — For twenty-five years the temperance societies were the only means adopted to prevent the evils of drunkenness. In 1851, the State of Maine passed a law prohibiting the manufacture or sale of intoxicating liquors, except for medicinal purposes. This "Maine Law" was the first attempt to control the matter by legal prohibition. At times other States have followed her example. To-day this question is one of the most important for the American people to settle.

# CHAPTER LXVII.

## THE GROWTH OF THE SLAVERY AGITATION.

**507. North and South.** — When the thirteen States declared their independence in 1776, the distinction between North and South which later developed did not exist. Negroes were held as slaves in every State of the Union (¶ 394), though the number in the South was the greater. This was due partly to the fact that the negroes had been brought from the warm regions of Africa and could endure Southern heat better than Northern cold. The white population had suffered severely from the climate in the Southern colonies, and had been unable to endure the strain of work upon the great plantations.

**508. The Slave-Trade.** — This difference in the number of negroes, North and South, became greater during the twenty years between 1788 and 1808, the period during which the Constitution permitted the introduction of slaves from Africa (¶ 447). By 1810 there were more than a million negro slaves south of Mason and Dixon's line, but north of that line slavery had been abolished in every State. This difference between the sections caused a great divergence in their customs and institutions. It resulted also in such a variance in their modes of thought as almost to divide the nation into two hostile wings. Abraham Lincoln's opinion, expressed in 1860, that this country could not forever continue half slave and half free, was correct.

**509. Early Ideas.** — Jefferson and Washington were slave-owners, as were all of the first statesmen from the Southern section, but they differed from the majority of the Southerners in believing that the slaves should gradually be set free. President Jefferson had at one time the expectation that slavery must eventually and, he hoped, peacefully die out. He lived long enough, however, to see that his desire was not to be realized, and to fear that slavery might some time prove a serious injury to the country.

**510. Change of Views.** — The invention of the cotton-gin (¶ 397), which so stimulated the raising of cotton, made negro help almost an absolute necessity. The people of the South had come to accept

the system as right; and while, before, they had been in the habit of apologizing for its existence, now many of them spoke and wrote of it as being highly beneficial even to the slaves themselves. As the owners of the large plantations acquired more and more slaves, they were more and more opposed to the idea of emancipation. As the negroes did all the work of the plantations, their masters had only to enjoy the blessings of life, with few of its hardships.

**511. Slaves.** — The condition of the slaves varied greatly under different circumstances. Those that were employed in the household were treated with great kindness and sometimes were affectionately loved by their masters and mistresses. Those that worked in the field, especially upon the large plantations, under the care of overseers, were often used harshly. They were frequently whipped, sometimes very severely, and at times their suffering was extreme. It was the policy of the slave-owners not to enlighten the slaves, and in some of the States it was a crime to teach even a free negro to read. The auction-block sales, where negroes were bought to be carried to the cotton-fields, were, in Northern eyes, the most offensive features of the whole slave system. The separating of parents from children, husbands from wives, as one or the other was taken away, never to be seen again by their friends, seemed to be one of the worst evils of the system.

**512. The Effect upon the South.** — If there were any question as to the evil effects of slavery upon the negro himself, there is none as to the great injury which the system did to the South. The possession of a large number of slaves made life easy for the owner, but added no real wealth to the State. Slave labor was and always must be one of the most wasteful forms of human industry. The slaves had no interest in their labor, and did as little work as possible. Intelligence and industry are requisite for national as well as individual success.

Another serious evil resulting from slavery was its effect upon the whites who did not own slaves. The largest portion of the work was done by the slaves, and therefore labor came to be considered a disgrace. White men would not work side by side with the blacks, and there was but little other work for those who did not own land. The "poor whites" naturally became shiftless, did only enough to keep body and soul together, and dragged out a mere existence.

It has frequently been remarked that slavery inflicted much greater injuries upon the white people of the South than upon the negroes.

**513. Colonization.** — Previous to the year 1820 (¶ 447) the question of slavery was treated almost entirely as a local matter, and attracted but little attention either in the free or the slave States. In 1808, the first date at which the Constitution permitted it, a law went into effect, forbidding the importation of negroes from Africa, or, in other words, abolishing the foreign slave-trade. In 1811 the American Colonization Society was formed, whose purpose was to send back the free blacks to Africa. The section to which they were to be sent was called Liberia, and a small settlement of these negroes was eventually formed at that place. The matter was, however, wholly voluntary, and, as the number of free blacks in the South was very small, the society had very little success in its philanthropic design. The antislavery societies formed a few years later vigorously opposed the colonization idea, and weakened the usefulness of the society.

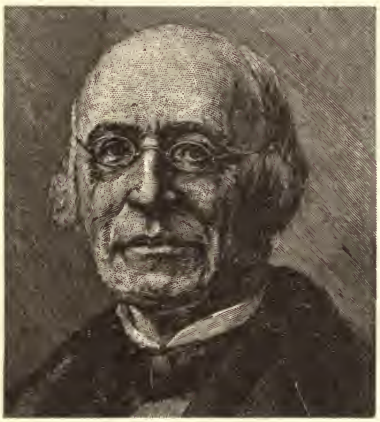
**Henry Clay**, the "Great Compromiser," was born in Virginia, April 12th, 1777. A member of the Kentucky legislature in 1803, he was made its speaker in 1808. He was elected to the House of Representatives, and was chosen Speaker in 1811. He became at once the leader of the war party, and in 1814 was one of the commissioners to negotiate the treaty of peace. Mr. Clay was, later, again made Speaker of the House, was Secretary of State under President Adams, was member of the Senate, and was three times an unsuccessful candidate for the Presidency. He died July 29th, 1852. Mr. Clay, by his various compromise measures, was able to ward off, for the time, serious dangers from the country. In 1820, he presented the Missouri Compromise; in 1833, he prepared the Compromise Tariff; and in his old age, he introduced the Compromise of 1850. He was the most enthusiastic advocate of the "American System" and the leader of the Whig party.

**514. Equal Representation.** — When the first real struggle over slavery came, in 1820 (¶ 448), it turned on the question of the admission of free and slave States. For many years it had been the custom to admit simultaneously free and slave States. After 1820, the twelve free and the twelve slave States seemed to work together in harmony, believing that the Missouri Compromise had finally settled the troublesome dispute. For ten years the whole nation remained quiet; and when the fire blazed up again in 1831, it was not over the question of the admission of States.

**515. Abolition.** — In 1831 an insurrection broke out among the slaves in Virginia. The State authorities very easily quelled the rebellion, although the disturbance spread over nearly the whole State. Slave-owners were everywhere badly frightened, and many

harsh laws were passed throughout the slave States to prevent a possible repetition. At about the same time moral sentiment against slavery itself began to be shown in the North. This new abolition movement was principally inaugurated by William Lloyd Garrison, who edited and printed an antislavery weekly newspaper, called "The Liberator." Garrison's purpose was to awaken an interest in a movement to remove slavery from the country. No obstacle, no constitutional hindrance, no claim to damages from the slave-owner, ought, in his judgment, to delay immediate emancipation.

**516. Antislavery Societies.** — The first society formed for the direct purpose of fighting slavery was the New England Antislavery Society, established in 1832, and the second, the American Antislavery Society, was started the same year. The membership in these and similar organizations was greatly stimulated in 1833 by the act of the British government in emancipating the eight hundred thousand slaves in the British West Indies. Nevertheless, the societies remained comparatively small, the majority of the Northern people seeing no constitutional way of abolishing slavery, and disliking to awaken any hostility between the sections. The opposition to the movement, even in the free States, was very great. Meetings of the societies were frequently broken up, the presses, on which antislavery documents were printed, were destroyed, and in October, 1835, a mob in Boston attacked Mr. Garrison, and probably would have severely injured him, had he not taken refuge in a jail.



**William Lloyd Garrison.**
(From a photograph in the possession of his son.)

**517. Petitions.** — The sending of antislavery tracts through the mails into the South caused great indignation among the Southern leaders. The presenting of petitions to Congress, asking for the abolition of slavery, resulted in what was called the "Gag Rule." The advocates of slavery succeeded in passing a resolution through Congress refusing to receive any such abolition petitions. This was

a mistake on their part. Many, who had refused to join the anti-slavery societies, were much incensed at this denial of what they called the "sacred right of petition." Not only did the membership of the abolition societies grow rapidly, but the number of the petitions increased to a remarkable extent, and, although not officially read in Congress, obtained the desired result of arousing the attention of the country. John Quincy Adams did the best work of his life in his service, though an ex-President, as a member of the House of Representatives, where he constantly fought for the "Right of Petition," although he himself was not in favor of immediate abolition. It was a great victory for him when, in 1844, the "Gag Law" was repealed, after having been on the statute-books for eight years.

Harriet Beecher Stowe.

**518. Later Antislavery Movements.** —Though the methods pursued by Mr. Garrison and his most enthusiastic supporters were not always wise or judicious, yet they resulted in awakening the North to a realization of the evil of slavery. The murder of Elijah P. Lovejoy, in Alton, Ill., in 1837, for printing abolition tracts and papers, caused a wave of indignation through the free States. Wendell Phillips, the "silver-tongued orator," took up the cause of the slave in 1837, and became one of the greatest of the abolition leaders. Mr. Adams was for a time the only man in Congress upon whom the agitators could rely, but in 1841 Ohio elected Joshua R. Giddings to the House of Representatives, and for many years this so-called "apostle of liberty" upheld the cause of the despised slave in Congress.

**519. The Liberty Party.** — In 1840 the Liberty party was established in order to make the slavery question a political matter. It nominated, as its candidate for the Presidency, James G. Birney, a former slave-owner, who had freed his slaves and removed to Michigan. The vote cast by this party was very small, scarcely large enough to be called anything but scattering. In 1844 the same candidate was

again nominated, and obtained a larger vote than before. The result proved a disaster to the antislavery cause, as the vote of the Liberty party in New York State practically resulted in the election of Mr. Polk, the admission of Texas, the war with Mexico, and the purchase of New Mexico and California, all of which the slavery leaders desired.

**520. "Uncle Tom's Cabin."** — However much the lovers of the Union may have desired to keep the troublesome question of slavery out of Congress, it proved to be an impossibility. The admission of Texas, the Wilmot Proviso, and the Mexican purchase, all tended to keep the matter before the public. The compromise of 1850 was adopted in the hope that the agitation would now cease, but the Fugitive-Slave Law had a directly opposite effect. The publication of Mrs. Stowe's "Uncle Tom's Cabin," in 1852, greatly increased the moral opposition to slavery. It told the story of some of the worst phases of slave life, and won the sympathies of thousands of Northerners who could not have been interested in any other way. From this time on, no other issue of importance came before the people, and the struggle between slavery and freedom was destined to continue until one or the other should finally become supreme.

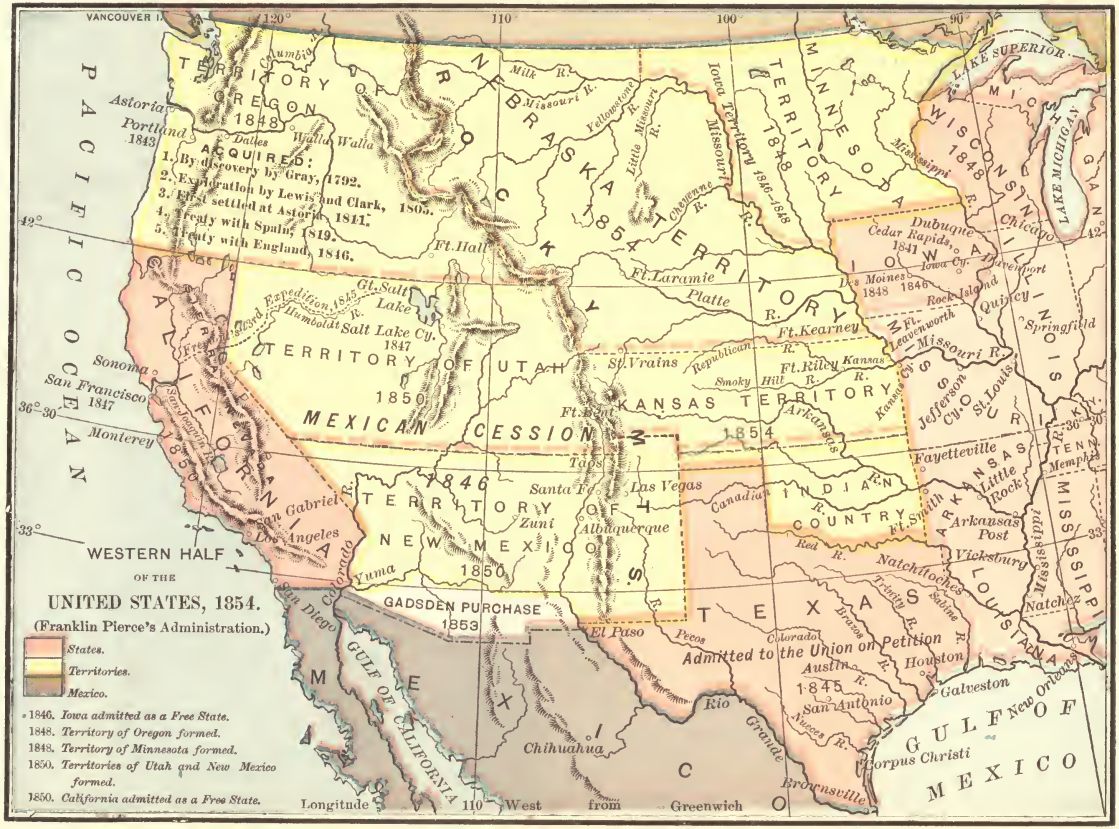
## CHAPTER LXVIII.

### KANSAS AND NEBRASKA. 1853–1857.

**521. Stephen A. Douglas.** — One of the new leaders of the politics of the day was Stephen A. Douglas, a senator from Illinois. He was a Democrat from a free State, and desired to do something that would bring to an end the discussions over the slavery question. With this purpose in view he proposed in the Senate a bill organizing the two territories of Kansas and Nebraska, leaving to the people of those territories the right to decide whether, as territories, they should sanction or prohibit slavery. This bill was called the Kansas-Nebraska Act, and was passed by Congress after a bitter fight.

**522. The Struggle for Kansas.** — It was hoped by the friends of this bill that by it the slavery question would be removed from Congress,

# 1854.

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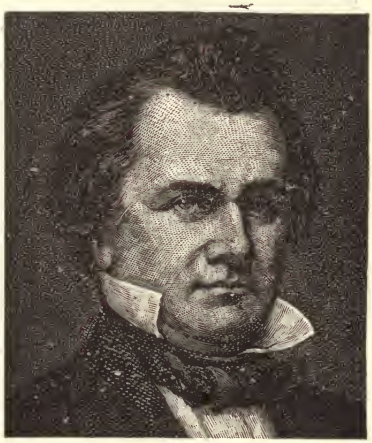
and that the people of each territory would settle the matter for themselves. As the first settlers were often called "Squatters," this plan received the name of "Squatter Sovereignty." The indignation aroused in the North was very great, as all this land, which seemed in danger of being made into slave States, had, by the Missouri Compromise, been set apart for freedom. Movements were at once made in both North and South to send settlers into the new territory. As the Territory of Kansas lay to the south of Nebraska, its soil seemed better suited for slavery, and here the struggle began.

**Franklin Pierce** was born at Hillsborough, New Hampshire, November 23d, 1804. After he was graduated from Bowdoin he studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1827. Here he took high rank. Mr. Pierce served in the House from 1833 to 1835, and in the Senate from 1837 to 1843. At the outbreak of the war with Mexico, he enlisted as a volunteer, but was soon raised to the rank of colonel, and later to that of brigadier-general. Pierce was a zealous Democrat, and belonged to the proslavery wing of that party. He died October 8th, 1869.

**523. The Emigrant Aid Society.** — The first to arrive in Kansas was a band of slaveholders from just across the border of the neighboring State of Missouri. They made a settlement at Atchison, which became the headquarters of the slavery party. A little later the Emigrant Aid Society was formed in New England, and help was given to any Northerner willing to migrate to the new territory. When the time for the first elections came on, great excitement naturally arose, and many of the inhabitants of Missouri came into Kansas simply to vote, and then returned to their homes. By means of such frauds a proslavery legislature was elected, and for a time the Free-State party lost its opportunity.



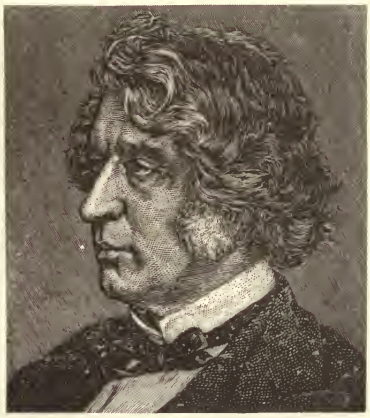
**Stephen A. Douglas.**
(From a negative in the possession of the U. S. Government.)

**524. The "Border War."** — The Free-State party in the territory made another attempt to keep slavery from the State, and held a convention which formed a constitution and applied to Congress for admission as a free State. The House of Representatives at Washington voted to admit the State of Kansas with this Topeka Con-

stitution, but the Senate refused to concur. The territory was thus left to its own resources, and a civil war began which continued for several years. Murders and assassinations became frequent, towns were attacked and burned or pillaged, and a period of terror ensued. The wrong-doing was not confined to one party, though the proslavery party was perhaps the more violent in its attacks. In 1857 the Free-State faction obtained a majority of the territorial legislature, and, though the border warfare still continued, the cause of slavery was destroyed in Kansas forever.

**Stephen Arnold Douglas,** the author of the doctrine of "Squatter Sovereignty," was born in Vermont in 1813. In 1834 he was admitted to the Illinois bar, and at once received political preferment. In 1843 he was elected to Congress, and took active part in the measures which secured to the United States Oregon and Texas. He was an ardent Unionist, and in 1861 denounced secession as criminal. He was an eloquent orator, his most noted speeches being made in his contest with Lincoln. He died June 3d, 1861.

**525. The Anti-Nebraska Party.** — An effect of the Kansas-Nebraska Act which had not been expected by its friends was the formation of a strong party to resist the encroachments of slavery. At first it consisted only of those elements of the existing parties opposed to the act. The opponents of the Nebraska Bill were those who had been Northern Whigs and Democrats and members of the Free-Soil party. Their success in the elections of 1854 resulted in the formation soon after of a national party, which presented a candidate for President at the election of 1856.



Charles Sumner.

(From a negative in the possession of the U. S. Government.)

**526. Charles Sumner.** — During the struggle which took place in Congress at the time of the civil war in Kansas, Charles Sumner, Senator from Massachusetts, made several strong and bitter speeches against the slavery party. One of those who was especially mentioned, but who was absent at the time, was Senator Butler, of South Carolina. A day or two later, his nephew, Preston S. Brooks, a representative, entered the Senate-chamber, and approaching Senator Sumner from behind, suddenly began beating him on the head

with a thick cane which he carried. This unprovoked attack, which seriously and almost fatally injured the Senator, caused great indignation at the North. Massachusetts re-elected Mr. Sumner, although he was unable for several years to take his seat in the Senate. Brooks resigned his position, but his district unanimously re-elected him to Congress.

**Charles Sumner,** for twenty-four years senator from Massachusetts, was born at Boston, January 6th, 1811. He was graduated from Harvard University in 1830, and four years later was admitted to the bar. In 1850 he was sent to the Senate, where he remained until his death, March 11th, 1874. He was one of the great leaders among the Free-Soilers, and one of the founders of the Republican party. Mr. Sumner held very pronounced views on the policy of reconstruction. His re-election to the United States Senate in 1856, at a time when he was compelled to travel for his health, showed the estimation in which he was held at home.

**527. Commodore Perry.** — In contrast with this internal struggle was the effort made by Commodore Perry to open the ports of Japan to American commerce. That country had not, for centuries, allowed any foreigners to enter the territory, and therefore had been almost unknown to the civilized world. The Japanese, with a civilization peculiar to themselves, considered all other nations little more than dreaded barbarians. Perry entered their ports with a fleet of steamers, and succeeded in convincing the people that he and his men, at least, were not barbarians; and he obtained from the government concessions which resulted a few years later in the formation of a treaty with the United States permitting our vessels to trade in their ports.

**Martin Koszta.** — Since the War of 1812, England has not exercised her so-called "right of search and impressment," and thus has tacitly acknowledged the justice of the position of the United States. During Pierce's administration, another claim of the United States was made, granted, and forever settled in her favor. A Hungarian, Martin Koszta by name, had fled to the United States, and had taken out his first naturalization papers. Later, while in the harbor of Smyrna, a Turkish city, he was arrested and confined on an Austrian man-of-war. Captain Ingraham, of the American navy, threatened to cannonade the Austrian frigate unless the American citizen was set free. After some considerable official intercourse the demand was granted, and Koszta was permitted to return to the United States. By common consent, since that time, naturalized citizens have been granted in foreign countries all the rights of native Americans.

**528. Presidential Election.** — A fear that the foreign element would obtain a controlling position in politics resulted in the formation of an American party. This was commonly called the "Know-Nothing" party, and was based on the principle that no foreigner should be elected to office. It nominated ex-President Fillmore for President, but in the election was only able to carry Maryland. The Republican party formed by the opponents of the Kansas-Nebraska Act was

now fully organized, and it nominated as its candidates John C. Fremont of California and William L. Dayton of New Jersey. The Democratic candidates were James Buchanan of Pennsylvania and John C. Breckinridge of Kentucky. The Democrats were successful in the contest, carrying 174 votes to 114 for Fremont.

## CHAPTER LXIX.

### SECESSION. 1857–1861.

**529. Dred Scott.** — Immediately upon the inauguration of President Buchanan, March 4th, **1857**, the slavery question, which Mr. Douglas had hoped was settled by the Kansas-Nebraska Act, showed itself still the live issue of the day. An important decision of the Supreme Court gave even more alarm to the antislavery element than any previous action in the history of the government. Dred Scott was a Missouri slave who had claimed his freedom because his master had previously taken him into a free State. The matter came up by appeal to the United States Supreme Court, which decided that he was not a citizen, and therefore had no standing in courts of law. The Supreme Court also rendered decisions that affected the whole status of the negro. In substance, the negro was judged to be no more than property, and therefore the same protection must be accorded by the United States to slave as to any other personal property. This decision would seem to outdo even the Kansas-Nebraska Act, as by it citizens might carry their slaves into any of the territories.

**James Buchanan** was born in Franklin County, Pennsylvania, in 1791, and died in 1868. He was a member of Congress from 1820 to 1831; minister to Russia, 1832 to 1834; and senator, 1834 to 1845. During the administration of President Polk, he was Secretary of State. In 1853, President Pierce appointed him minister to England. On his return from England, he was nominated as the Democratic candidate for President.

**530. Kansas Again.** — Strong pressure was brought to bear upon Congress to admit Kansas to the Union with what was called the Lecompton Constitution. This had been framed by the proslavery legislature of the Territory just before its term expired, and contained a clause permitting slavery. Congress realized, however, that the

majority of the inhabitants did not desire the Lecompton Constitution, and failed to pass the bill. Not until January 29th, 1861, and after the secession of six Southern States (¶ 535), was Kansas admitted to the Union. Meanwhile, Minnesota, May 11th, 1858, and Oregon, February 14th, 1859, were admitted as free States.

**Minnesota,** or the "Gopher State," was first settled in 1819, though the French established trading-posts there in 1680. Most of the Territory was obtained by the Louisiana purchase, but the part east of the Mississippi River was a portion of the Northwest Territory. The leading industry of the State is agriculture, but the advantages for manufacturing industries are excellent. It has had the usual rapid growth in population, gaining from six thousand in 1850 to thirteen hundred thousand in 1890.

**531. Lincoln and Douglas.** — The position of the two parties in the North on the slavery question in 1858 can be quite well shown by what were called the Lincoln-Douglas debates. These two citizens of Illinois were rival candidates for election to the United States Senate, and during the campaign the two men made a series of speeches from the same platforms. Mr. Douglas had the difficult task of trying to reconcile the Dred Scott decision with his own doctrine of "Squatter Sovereignty," and proved himself a strong representative of the northern wing of the Democratic party.

Abraham Lincoln (¶ 550) took the ground of the moderate anti-slavery men, in opposition both to Douglas in the Kansas-Nebraska Act, and to Chief-Justice Taney in the Dred Scott decision. He showed himself an able opponent of the great orator, and his brilliant speeches brought him before the public as a strong candidate for the nomination of the Republican party for President. Mr. Douglas was elected senator, but by so small a majority as to weaken his chances of ever attaining the Presidency.

**Oregon.** — The region called Oregon, the cause of so much discussion between the United States and Great Britain, was given a territorial government in 1848. On the admission of Oregon, the rest of the Territory was reorganized, and called Washington. Agriculture and manufactures are in a flourishing condition, but the most interesting industry is the salmon-fishing in the Columbia River. The population of the "Beaver State" is over three hundred thousand.

**532. John Brown.** — While legislative and judicial proceedings on the slavery question were keeping the people on the tiptoe of expectancy, a foolhardy attempt to obtain immediate freedom for the slaves rendered the excitement more intense. John Brown had been one of the most zealous of the anti-slavery settlers of Kansas, and had been compelled to flee from the Territory with a price on his head. Later he conceived the idea of

freeing and arming some slaves and starting an insurrection, probably with the hope of frightening the South into granting the slaves their freedom.

In the execution of his plan, on the 16th of October, **1859**, Brown and his sons captured the United States arsenal at Harper's Ferry, on the Potomac River, and armed a few negroes. He was easily overpowered, and after a speedy trial by a Virginia court was hanged as a "traitor." Though very few, even of the most ardent abolitionists, sympathized with Brown in his attempt, the South was unable to realize the true situation. The Southerners were afraid of slave insurrections, and did not attempt to conceal their hatred of the abolitionists of the North. They failed to perceive that there were few who desired immediate abolition of slavery and fewer still who approved of any insurrection for that purpose. All antislavery men were classed by them as abolitionists, and Southern Democrats had only scorn and contempt for the "Black Republicans," as they afterward called them.

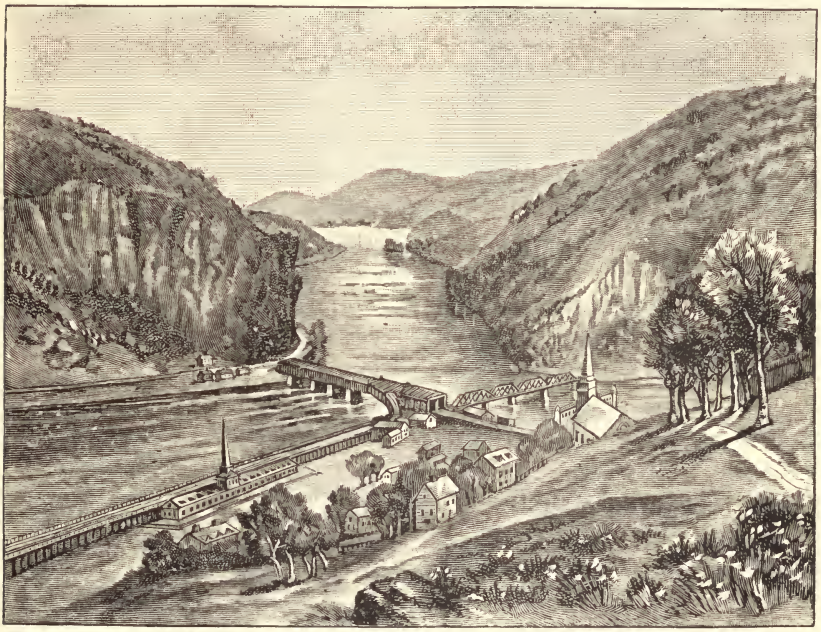
**Kansas.** — The history of Kansas as a Territory forms a very important part of the history of the United States. The soil and climate of the "Sunflower State" are well adapted to the agriculturist, the fruit-grower, and the stock-raiser. Available water-power is one of the most valuable possessions of Kansas. The numerous railroads of the State give abundant opportunity for transportation to eastern markets. The population of Kansas is about a million and a half.

**533. The Campaign of 1860.** — The political divisions in 1860 were based upon the different views on the question of extension or restriction of slavery. The Democratic party could not unite upon a candidate, and split into two wings. The strong proslavery men met and nominated Vice-President John C. Breckinridge for President. The more moderate men of the party met in a separate convention and nominated Stephen A. Douglas. The Republicans chose Abraham Lincoln of Illinois and Hannibal Hamlin of Maine to head their ticket. The break among the Democrats, together with the presence of a fourth party, gave the Republicans a great advantage, and Lincoln and Hamlin received 180 of the votes cast by the 303 electors. They carried every Northern State except a por-

**A New Party.** — A convention held by the conservative men of all parties, who desired to ignore the whole troublesome question, adopted a platform which demanded merely the upholding of the Constitution, the Union, and the laws. This was called the "Constitutional Union" party, and had John Bell of Tennessee as its candidate.

tion of New Jersey, while Breckenridge obtained most of the Southern States. The Constitutional Union party carried three of the border States, while Douglas received but twelve electoral votes.

**534. The Effect upon the South.** — Mr. Lincoln was the first candidate ever elected President by the votes of a section, and also the first to be elected on a distinctively antislavery platform. The fear and hatred that the Southern leaders had for the abolitionists and the

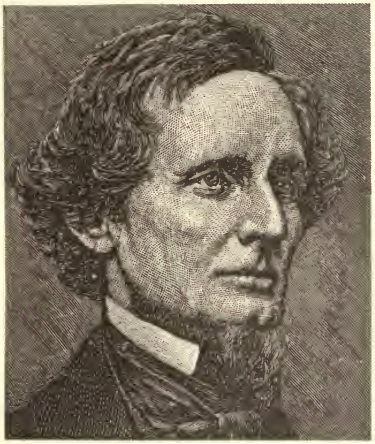


Harper's Ferry.

"Black Republicans" made their disappointment at the result of the election almost unbearable. The advocates of slavery thought that the Republican party would leave no stone unturned to deprive them of their established institution, and therefore decided that the time had come to take very radical measures for the preservation of slavery.

**535. Secession.** — When South Carolina received the news of the election of Lincoln, its legislature called a State convention, which on **December 20th, 1860,** passed an ordinance of "secession." This act

repealed the former acts of the State in ratifying the Constitution of the United States, and declared the connection of South Carolina with the rest of the Union at an end. Within two months, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas had followed the lead of South Carolina and had "seceded" from the Union.



Jefferson Davis.
(From a photograph in the possession of his family.)

**536. "Confederate States."**—It was not the plan of the secessionists that each of the Southern States should exist as an independent nation. In February, 1861, a convention was held in Montgomery, Alabama, consisting of delegates from the "seceding" States, which formed a new Union, called the "Confederate States of America." Jefferson Davis of Mississippi was chosen President, and Alexander H. Stephens of Georgia Vice-President of the Confederacy. One of the essential features of the Constitution adopted in March was the section which forbade forever any attempt to emancipate the slaves.

**Jefferson Davis**, the President of the Confederate States, was born in Kentucky, June 3d, 1808. He was graduated from West Point in 1828, resigned his commission in 1835, and entered Congress in 1845, but soon joined General Taylor's army in Mexico. He was elected senator in 1847. He became President Pierce's Secretary of War, and in 1857 was returned to the Senate. He left that body, January 21st, 1861, after announcing the secession of his State, Mississippi. Mr. Davis was imprisoned in Fortress Monroe for two years after the war was over, but was then released without trial. After 1867 he lived very quietly at his home in Mississippi. He died at New Orleans, Dec. 6, 1889.

**537. President Buchanan.**—The effect of this extreme action of the Southern States upon the country as a whole was such as almost to paralyze the government. Southern leaders daily left Washington; Southern officers were continually giving up their commissions in the army. The materials of war that had been gradually carried into the Southern States were everywhere confiscated, and United States forts and arsenals were turned over to the State governments. President Buchanan was surrounded by Southern advisers, and was unable to decide what ought to be done under the existing circum-

stances. He did not believe that the States had a right to withdraw from the Union, yet he did not think that the national government had the right to use force to compel any State to remain in the Union. He thought that Congress ought to pass some acts which would satisfy the Southern leaders, and would induce them to come back. As a result, no decision was reached during the remaining months of his administration. The President reconstructed his cabinet, and more careful attention was paid to the war and navy departments of the national government. The Washington authorities and the country at large seemed simply waiting for the 4th of March, and the inauguration of the new President. When that time came, the only practical possessions of the national government in the seven seceding States were the three fortifications, — Fort Sumter in Charleston Harbor, Fort Pickens at Pensacola, and Key West.

**Alexander Hamilton Stephens,** the Vice-President of the Confederacy, was born in Georgia, February 11th, 1812. Mr. Stephens suffered much from ill-health, but he overcame all difficulties, and obtained high positions, both in politics and in the law. He was a member of Congress from 1843 to 1859, at first as a Whig, but later as a Democrat, because of the slavery struggle. Mr. Stephens was very much opposed to secession, but he went with his State, considering his allegiance to Georgia higher than that due to the nation. He died March 4th, 1883.

## CHRONOLOGY.

**1825.** Creek Treaty, February 12.
J. Q. Adams inaugurated President, March 4.
Completion of the Erie Canal.
**1826.** Panama Congress.
Deaths of Jefferson and Adams, July 4.
**1827.** Cherokee Troubles in Georgia.
**1828.** Tariff of abominations.
Formation of new parties.
**1829.** Jackson inaugurated President, March 4.
Introduction of the spoils system.
**1830.** Webster-Hayne debate, January.
**1831.** Establishment of the "Liberator."
**1832.** United States Bank charter vetoed.
New protective tariff.
Nullification Ordinance of South Carolina, November.

**1833.** Compromise tariff.
Removal of the deposits.
First American locomotive.
**1834.** Invention of the reaping-machine.
**1835.** Seminole war begins.
**1836** Manufacture of friction matches.
Anthracite coal used for making steam.
**1837.** Van Buren inaugurated President, March 4.
Financial crisis.
Murder of Lovejoy.
**1838.** Gag resolutions in Congress.
**1840.** Sub-treasury established.
**1841.** Harrison inaugurated President, March 4.
Death of President Harrison, April 4.
**1842.** New tariff act.
Ashburton treaty.
Dorr Rebellion.
**1844.** The Princeton explosion.
First electric telegraph.
Patroon War.
**1845.** Annexation of Texas, March.
Polk inaugurated President, March 4.
**1846.** Oregon treaty.
New tariff act.
Sub-treasury re-established.
Palo Alto, May 8.
Resaca de la Palma, May 9.
Declaration of war, May 13.
Conquest of California.
Conquest of New Mexico.
Monterey, September 24.
**1847.** Buena Vista, February 22, 23.
Vera Cruz, March 29.
Cerro Gordo, April 18.
Cherubusco, August 20.
Chapultepec, September 12, 13.
Capture of Mexico, September 14.
**1848.** Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo, February 2.
Discovery of gold.
**1849.** Taylor inaugurated President, March 5.
Immigration to California.
**1850.** Death of President Taylor, July 9.
Compromise of 1850, September.
Fugitive-Slave Law.
**1851.** Prohibition in Maine.

**1853.** Pierce inaugurated President, March 4.
Gadsden purchase, December 30.
The Martin Koszta case.

**1854.** Treaty with Japan, March 21.
Reciprocity treaty with Great Britain.
Kansas-Nebraska bill.

**1855.** Formation of the Republican Party.

**1856.** Assault on Sumner.

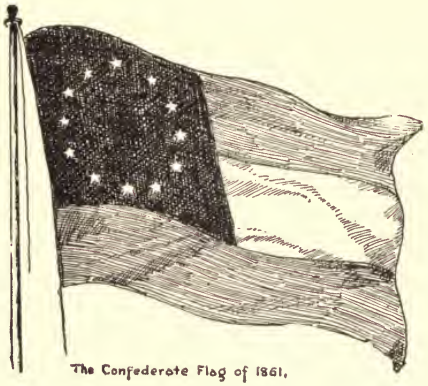
**1857.** Buchanan inaugurated President, March 4.
Dred Scott decision.
Commercial distress.
First Atlantic cable.

**1858.** Mormons overpowered by the National government.
Lincoln-Douglas debate.

**1859.** John Brown's raid, October 16.

**1860.** Lincoln elected President.
South Carolina "Secession" Convention. December 20.

**1861.** Secession of six other States.
Confederate Convention at Montgomery, February 4.



The Confederate Flag of 1861.

# Blackboard Analysis.

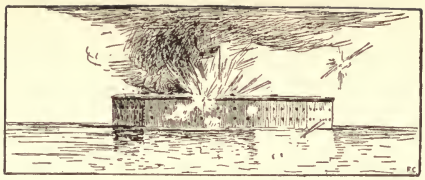
**President** . . . . . LINCOLN . . . . . 1861–1865

**War in the East** . . .
- FORT SUMTER.
- BULL RUN.
- MONITOR AND MERRIMAC.
- PENINSULAR CAMPAIGN.
- ANTIETAM.
- FREDERICKSBURG.
- CHANCELLORSVILLE
- GETTYSBURG.
- THE WILDERNESS.
- PETERSBURG CAMPAIGN.
- FALL OF RICHMOND.
- SURRENDER AT APPOMATTOX.

**War in the West** . .
- FORTS HENRY AND DONELSON.
- SHILOH.
- MISSISSIPPI.
- VICKSBURG.
- CHATTANOOGA.
- ATLANTA.
- SHERMAN'S MARCH.
- SURRENDER OF JOHNSTON.

**Results of the War** .
- THE TRENT AFFAIR.
- ALABAMA.
- EMANCIPATION.
- REVENUE.
- AMENDMENTS.
- ASSASSINATION.

**New States** . . . . .
- WEST VIRGINIA . . . . . 1863
- NEVADA . . . . . 1864



Fort Sumter under fire

## SECTION XI.

### THE NATION ASSURED. 1861–1865.

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## CHAPTER LXX.

### THE NORTH AND THE SOUTH.

**538. War or Peace?** — What would be the result of the attempt of the Southern States to establish a new confederacy? A large proportion of the Southern people felt assured that the Union, or the North, as they chose to call what remained of the Union, would peacefully permit the separation. If any attempt should be made to resort to force to compel the States to return, it would be feeble and easily overcome. A few, like their Vice-President Stephens, felt otherwise, and urged a careful counting of the cost of the war, which they saw was inevitable.

**539. Numbers.** — If war should come, what were the prospects? Had the North or the South more of the things necessary for a successful prosecution of the war? The population of the Union in 1860 was more than thirty millions. Of this number, less than one-third were in the seceding States, and, omitting the slaves from the account, hardly one-fifth. In other words, the North, or the Union, could probably furnish three or four times as many soldiers as could the Confederacy.

**540. Soldiers.** — The contest with Mexico was the only real school in which the Americans had learned the art of war. Most of the soldiers and nearly all of the commanders had been men from the Southern States. Besides, a large proportion of the officers, who, trained at West Point, had remained in the army, were from the South, and "went with their States." The North had a considerable militia

force, but it was badly organized, and not greatly to be depended upon. Southern slave-owners were well adapted for soldiers, while the commercial and mercantile men of the North were perhaps less military. Thus it seemed; but in fact it would be a case of "Greek meeting Greek." No such soldiers as would make up the bulk of the armies on both sides had ever been known.

**541. Implements of War.** — A sufficient number of good soldiers and officers is not the only necessity for carrying on a successful war. It is necessary to furnish the army with implements of war, food and clothing, and also to provide for the nation as a whole, so long as the war shall last. Machine-shops and foundries the North had in abundance, while the South had scarcely one within her borders. Nearly half the guns and ammunition belonging to the United States had been seized by the Confederate States; but in a short time the Union could more than replace what she had lost, while it would take months before the Confederacy could make the needed implements of war. Meanwhile they must be purchased from abroad should it prove possible to obtain them at all.

**542. Provisions.** — The Southern States were agricultural rather than manufacturing, but the crops which they were in the habit of raising would prove of very little use in supporting an army. It would be of no advantage to raise cotton or tobacco if the Union should blockade the Southern ports, and decrease, if not prohibit, the exportation of these commodities. All the food, clothing, and domestic supplies, which the South had been in the habit of purchasing from the North, must be obtained at home or from abroad, while the North would continue to be able to produce these supplies as in the past. Perhaps the only argument on the other side, and this a strong one, lay in the fact that more Southern men could enter the army, as they could leave the slaves to till the fields.

**543. Railroads.** — Since 1825 a remarkable change had taken place in the means of transportation. The invention of the steam railroad (¶ 475) and the opening of the first passenger railway in America about 1828 had revolutionized the modes of travel. A complete system of railroads would be found necessary in carrying on this coming struggle, and the Union only was well prepared in this direction. Not only were there more railroads in the North, but also all the manufactories of rails, cars, and locomotives were in

the control of the Union. Another invention which was to revolutionize the whole system of warfare was that of the electric telegraph (¶ 486). Telegraph lines would follow every railroad, and speedily carry despatches from one commander to another.

**544. The Navy.** — The ships of war were for the most part in the hands of the Confederacy in 1861, but new vessels would soon be needed. Not only did the Union have ship-yards in abundance, but Northern merchants owned many vessels, and these could be transformed into frigates. The South would be unable to obtain an additional fleet, unless by purchase from abroad, and perhaps foreign nations would fear the ill-will of the United States.

**545. Capital.** — The South, it will be seen, must inaugurate many new lines of industry, if it were compelled to carry on a war of great length. It had but little capital and no money. Both must be obtained before it could become an independent nation. The Union was wealthy, abounding in capital, possessing gold and silver mines in abundance, and dependent upon no other country for supplies. Its mines were well developed, and its capital was invested in the manufacture of the necessities of war as well as of life.

**546. Illiteracy.** — In war, as in other employments, the character of the participants must be taken into account. The free schools of the North had rendered the common people different from those of the South. In one of the Northern States only fifteen out of every ten thousand persons were unable to read or write, while in a Southern State of nearly the same population this class of illiterates included nearly ninety out of every ten thousand. Besides, there were in the South three and a half million slaves, most of whom were kept in dense ignorance. Among the advantages which could be found on the side of the Union, this was not one of the least.

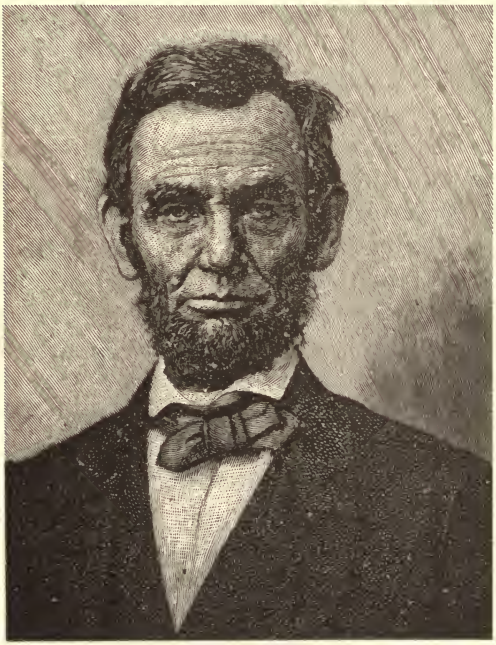
**547. Summary.** — If the war should come, it was evident to the thoughtful statesmen of the day that each side would have certain advantages. The North had a larger population, while the South had more experienced generals and soldiers, and could send a larger proportion of men to the army. Though the Confederacy had, at the beginning, a much larger stock of guns, ships, and ammunition, the Union had an immense advantage in being able to manufacture the necessities of war. Railroads and telegraphs could more easily be made to aid the United States, while the Confederate States

would probably have the advantage of fighting at home, as the war must necessarily, for a time, at least, be within their borders. The greater amount of illiteracy in the South would prove an injury to her, and she would suffer the most from actual contact with the realities of war. It were surely well for her to proceed carefully before entering upon such a struggle as must inevitably follow.

## CHAPTER LXXI.

### THE FALL OF SUMTER.

**548. The Problem.** — President Lincoln was inaugurated March 4th, **1861**. The task imposed upon him was no ordinary one. Seven of the States had seceded and formed a new government, taking the name "The Confederate States of America." The sentiment in these States had been rapidly crystallizing in favor of an independent Confederacy. The sentiment at the North had not yet become thoroughly unified. A strong opposition existed in many quarters against compelling these States to remain in the Union.



**Abraham Lincoln.**

(Copyright, 1891, by M. P. Rice. From a negative made in 1864.)

**549. Lincoln's Inaugural.** — Mr. Lincoln, in his inaugural address, stated clearly that it became his duty to preserve the union of the States. He said that the Federal laws must be

# 1861—1865.

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obeyed in all sections of our territory, and that it was his purpose to collect the public revenues at the ports of the seceded States, and to recover the forts and arsenals which belonged to the Federal government in those States.

**550. The Attack on Fort Sumter.** — Fort Sumter, opposite Charleston, was held by about one hundred soldiers under command of Major Robert Anderson. The Confederates gathered a force of five or six thousand men under command of General G. T. Beauregard, and occupied the other forts and batteries around Charleston Harbor. They erected strong earthworks, and put many pieces of artillery in position to reduce Fort Sumter. Beauregard sent a demand to Major Anderson to surrender, or rather to withdraw from the fort. Major Anderson refused to comply. On the morning of **April 12th, 1861**, fire was opened by the Confederates from all the batteries facing Fort Sumter. It was merely a question how long one hundred men could hold out against this overpowering force, and how long the walls of this ancient fortification could withstand the severe cannonade. The bombardment continued through the day.

**551. Sumter surrenders.** — On the morning of the 13th the cannonading was simply terrific. A concentrated fire of shot and shell from the whole line of Confederate fortifications fell upon Fort Sumter, making huge breaches in its walls, and at last setting fire to the woodwork in the fort. There was no alternative. Brave Major Anderson ordered the United States flag to be lowered. The Confederates allowed him and his men to march out with the honors of war, and to carry their flag with them. The fort was ruined, but no life had been lost on either side.

**Abraham Lincoln**, the sixteenth President of the United States, was born in Kentucky, February 12th, 1809. As a boy, he was so situated that he received almost no school instruction, and he said of himself, "The little advance I now have upon this store of education I have picked up from time to time under the pressure of necessity." In 1834 he was elected to the Illinois Legislature, where he remained eight years. While in the legislature, Mr. Lincoln completed his study of law, and in 1836 was admitted to the bar. In 1846 he was chosen a member of the United States House of Representatives, but was not re-elected to this position. No boy or girl in the United States should reach maturity without reading a life of President Lincoln. No brief summary can give any idea of the character of the man who guided the nation through its great peril. Mr. Nicolay, his biographer, has written, "History must accord him a rare sagacity in guiding a great people through the perils of a mighty revolution, an admirable singleness of aim, a skilful discernment and courageous seizure of the golden moment to free his nation from the incubus of slavery, faithful adherence to law, and conscientious moderation in the use of power, and a shining personal example of honesty and purity. As statesman, ruler, and liberator, civilization will hold his name in perpetual honor."

**552. Great Excitement.** — This attack upon the United States flag, and this capture of a United States fort, aroused the whole North. Civil war actually existed. Instantly the North was in a blaze of excitement. This one movement on the part of the South unified popular sentiment at the North. Conservatives and Radicals, Democrats and Republicans, alike called upon the national government to maintain its supremacy. All hearts beat as one. The effect at the South was similar. The die had been cast. The Confederates had attacked a Federal fort, and it had surrendered. Public sentiment throughout the seceded States was equally united. The Confederate government must be maintained.

**553. The Call for Troops.** — On the 15th of April President Lincoln issued a proclamation calling for seventy-five thousand troops to

The Attack on Fort Sumter.

serve for three months. The whole North responded with wonderful promptness. Thousands of the militia from the several States were quickly in motion toward Washington. On the 19th of April (¶ 244) a regiment from Massachusetts marched through Baltimore on its way to the capital. It was attacked by a mob, who threw paving-stones and fired pistols at the soldiers. The soldiers returned the fire. Several were killed on each side. This was

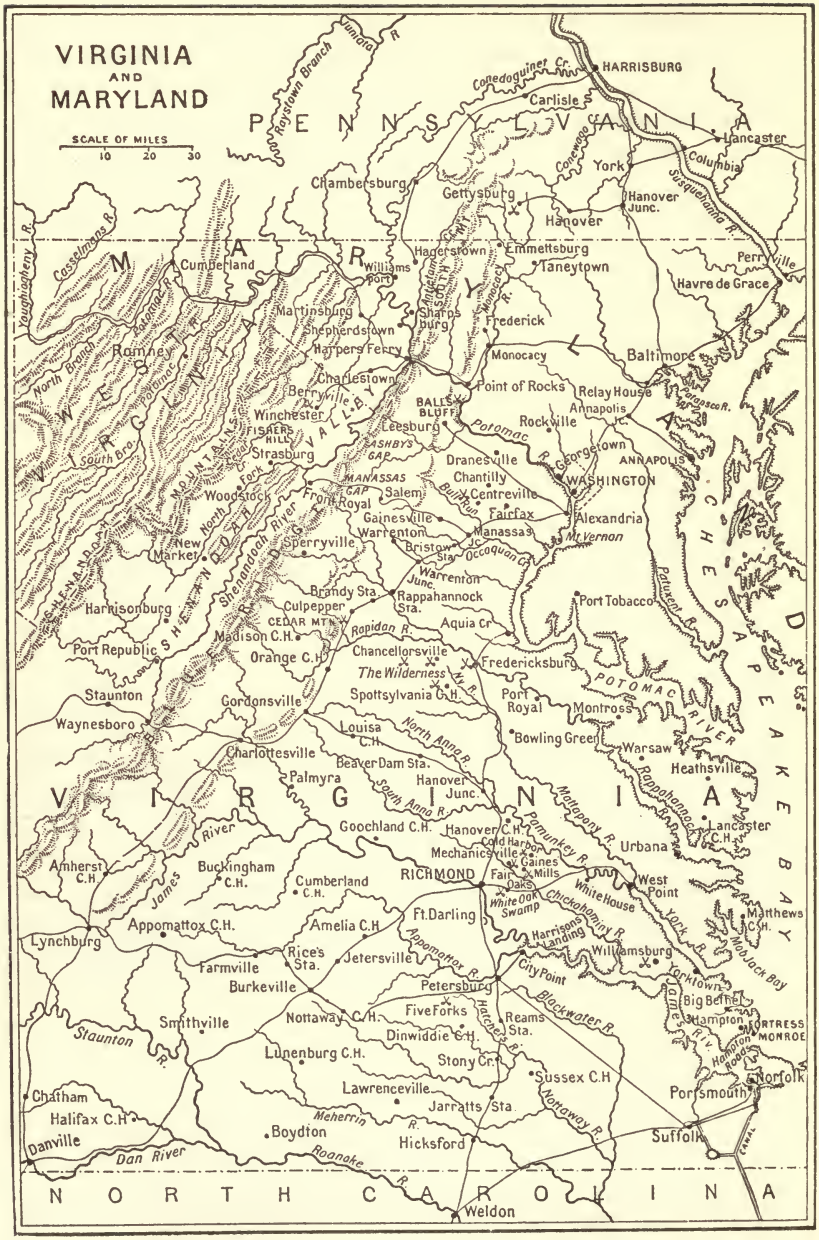
the first blood shed in the war. The effect of this contest was still further to unite public sentiment both at the North and at the South.

**554. The Struggle Imminent.** — It was now clear to both parties that war could not be avoided. Few, however, had any proper realization of how severe or how protracted this war would be. Many prophesied that it would end in ninety days. The North could hardly believe that the South intended a long struggle. On the other hand, the South was confident that the North would yield in a short time, and allow them their separate government. In April, May, and June, Virginia, Arkansas, North Carolina, and Tennessee passed ordinances of secession, and joined the new Confederacy. In May the Confederate government was removed from Montgomery to Richmond, Virginia.

**555. Congress convenes.** — On the 4th of July, 1861, the two houses of Congress assembled in extra session at the call of the President (¶ 387). They acted with the utmost promptness, and provided for raising an army of five hundred thousand men, and for increasing the strength and efficiency of the navy. Congress declared that the war must be prosecuted in order to sustain the integrity of the government. It was not to be carried on for conquest, nor to interfere with the established institutions of the Southern States. The rights of the several States were to remain unimpaired, but all the resources of the government must be used to maintain the Constitution and preserve the union of all the States.

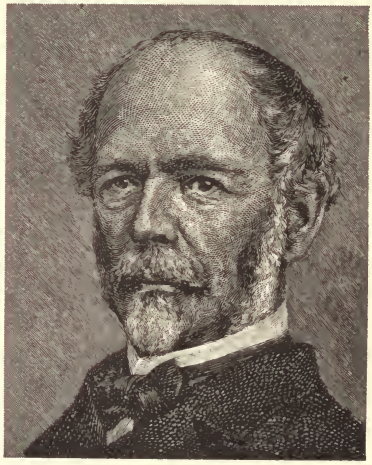
**556. The Gathering of the Armies.** — In the early summer a great army of raw recruits gathered in the vicinity of Washington, and were placed in camps for daily instruction in military drill. In like manner large forces were accumulating in Richmond and northern Virginia to defend the South from aggressive movements from the North, and, if possible, to capture Washington and transfer the seat of the Confederate government to that place.

**557. The Blockade.** — It was necessary for President Lincoln to blockade all the ports of the States which had seceded. This was a great undertaking. To begin with, he had but few vessels for the purpose. Others were soon bought or built, and the navy, after a time, was sufficiently large to make the blockade effective. The


VIRGINIA
AND
MARYLAND
SCALE OF MILES
10 20 30
PENNSYLVANIA
MARYLAND
WEST VIRGINIA
VIRGINIA
NORTH CAROLINA
CHESAPEAKE BAY
HARRISBURG
Carlisle
Lancaster
Columbia
York
Hanover Junc.
Hanover
Chambersburg
Gettysburg
Emmettsburg
Taneytown
Hagerstown
Williamsport
Cumberland
Martinsburg
Shepherdstown
Harpers Ferry
Sharpsburg
Frederick
Monocacy
Baltimore
Havre de Grace
Perryville
Romney
Charlestown
Berryville
Winchester
Point of Rocks
Relay House
Annapolis
Rockville
Leesburg
Strasburg
Woodstock
Dranesville
Chantilly
Centreville
Georgetown
WASHINGTON
ANNAPOLIS
Salem
Fairfax
Alexandria
Gainesville
Warrenton
Manassas
Mt Vernon
Bristow Sta.
Sperryville
New Market
Harrisonburg
Culpepper
Brandy Sta.
Rappahannock Sta.
Port Tobacco
Aquia Cr.
Madison C.H.
Orange C.H.
Port Republic
Chancellorsville
The Wilderness
Fredericksburg
Staunton
Gordonsville
Spottsylvania C.H.
Port Royal
Montross
Waynesboro
Louisa C.H.
Bowling Green
Warsaw
Charlottesville
Beaver Dam Sta.
Palmyra
Hanover Junc.
Heathsville
Goochland C.H.
Hanover C.H.
Cold Harbor
Mechanicsville
Gaines Mills
Urbana
Lancaster C.H.
Amherst C.H.
Buckingham C.H.
Cumberland C.H.
RICHMOND
Fair Oaks
White House
West Point
Ft. Darling
Appomattox C.H.
Amelia C.H.
Harrisons Landing
Williamsburg
Matthews C.H.
Lynchburg
Rice's Sta.
Jetersville
Farmville
Burkeville
City Point
Yorktown
Petersburg
Big Bethel
Hampton
FORTRESS MONROE
Smithville
Nottaway C.H.
Five Forks
Reams Sta.
Dinwiddie C.H.
Lunenburg C.H.
Stony Cr.
Sussex C.H.
Norfolk
Portsmouth
Chatham
Halifax C.H.
Lawrenceville
Jarratts Sta.
Boydton
Hicksford
Suffolk
Danville
Weldon
Potomac R.
Rappahannock R.
Rapidan R.
North Anna R.
South Anna R.
Mattapony R.
Pamunkey R.
Chickahominy R.
Appomattox R.
Blackwater R.
Nottaway R.
Meherrin R.
Roanoke R.
Dan River
James River
Staunton R.
Shenandoah River
Potomac River
Patuxent R.
Susquehanna R.
Conewago Cr.
Conedoguinet Cr.
Juniata R.
Raystown Branch
Youghiogheny R.
Casselmans R.
Potomac R.
North Branch
South Bro.
Cedar Cr.
Fork
Antietam Cr.
Monocacy R.
Patapsco R.
Rappahannock R.
Mob Jack Bay
York R.
Hampton Roads
Big Bethel
Hatchers R.
Cumberland Mts.
Shenandoah Mts.
Fisher's Hill
Ashbys Gap
Manassas Gap
Bull Run
Occoquan Cr.
Mt Vernon
Rappahannock R.
Rapidan R.
Cedar Mts.
Shenandoah Mts.
Cumberland Mts.
Potomac R.
Patuxent R.
Mattapony R.
Pamunkey R.
Chickahominy R.
Hatchers R.
Nottaway R.
Meherrin R.
Roanoke R.
Dan River
Staunton R.
James River
Potomac R.
Patapsco R.
Mob Jack Bay
Hampton Roads
Canal

commerce of a coast nearly three thousand miles long was practically stopped; and the blockade was never broken till the war closed. Some swift steamers called blockade runners would occasionally get through the blockade in a storm or by night with cargoes of merchandise; but the greater number of such vessels was captured.

**558. Northern Impatience.** — The people of the North were very impatient. They wished to push forward warlike operations speedily. The cry "On to Richmond!" was echoed and re-echoed by New York daily papers and elsewhere, until the government felt compelled to start the army upon an aggressive movement. Indeed, both sides were eager for the fight. This impatience of delay pervaded the minds of Congressmen, and they brought such a pressure to bear upon the government that General Scott (¶ 492), who was in command of the Union armies, unwillingly consented that the troops should make an advance from Washington toward the Confederate capital. General McDowell was placed in command of this army, and was directed to move his force into Virginia. On the 18th of July the Union army met the Confederate advance under General Longstreet, and the contest began. The Southern army was in command of Generals Beauregard and Joseph E. Johnston.

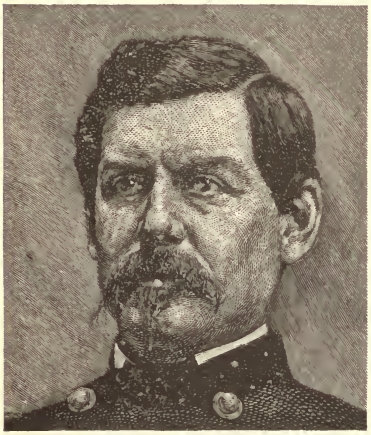


General Joseph E. Johnston.
(From a negative in the possession of the U. S. Government.)

**559. The Battle of Bull Run** — On the **21st of July, 1861,** the first great battle of the war was fought. It took place at a small stream called Bull Run. The place was near Manassas Junction, where Beauregard was posted, with the larger part of the Southern army. The contest was a severe one. At first the advantage was with the Union army; but in the afternoon the Confederate general, Kirby Smith, with a fresh army from the Shenandoah Valley, joined Beauregard, and the advance of the Union army was attacked. A desperate struggle now ensued, and the severe onset of the Confederates caused a retreat of the Federals, which was soon converted into a rout; and

the Union army, panic-stricken, fled toward Washington in wild disorder. The Southern army had suffered so severely in this short and sharp battle that their generals were unable to push their advantage by an attack upon the capital. The Union soldiers were quickly rallied, reorganized, and put to further drill in preparation for the events which must follow.

**560. A New General.** — General Winfield Scott had reached an extreme age, and it became necessary that a new commander should be selected. General George B. McClellan, who had won distinction by his movements in western Virginia, was selected as commander of the United States forces, which soon came to be known as the Army of the Potomac. General McClellan had been educated at the United States Military Academy at West Point, and came to the command with a great popularity surrounding his name. He at once set himself to the difficult task of organizing a great army.



General George B. McClellan.
(From a negative in the possession of the U. S. Government.)

**561. Preparations.** — The battle of Bull Run opened the eyes of the people both north and south. It became apparent to all that a great war was inevitable. No "ninety days' campaign" would settle the contest. Each party immediately began preparations for the long and desperate struggle. The Union army rapidly increased until it numbered one hundred and fifty thousand men, and became the largest and finest army that had ever been raised in the United States. General McClellan, with energy and skill, undertook to drill and prepare it for active service. The Confederate armies in Virginia were also increased, and were set to work to fortify their capital, Richmond, against the advance of the Federal troops.

**562. The Battle of Ball's Bluff.** — On the 21st of October a force of about two thousand Union soldiers under General Stone was thrown across the Potomac at Ball's Bluff, not far from Leesburg. They

were quickly attacked by superior numbers of the Confederates under General Evans, and actually driven into the river. Many were drowned, more were shot, and scarcely any of their number reached the opposite bank. Colonel Baker, who was a United States senator from Oregon, was among the killed.

## CHAPTER LXXII.

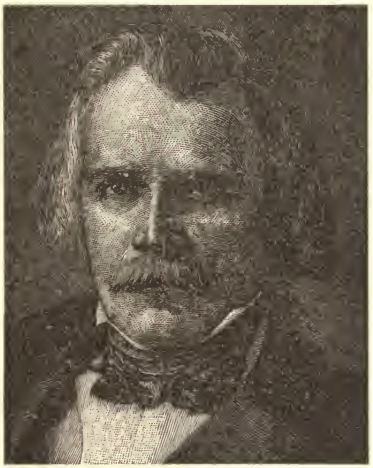
### THE WAR IN THE WEST.

**563. Missouri.** — During the first year of the war active operations in the West were chiefly confined to the State of Missouri. In the southern part of the State many citizens sided with the South; but in the whole State a large majority were upon the Union side. Governor Jackson had strong sympathies with the Confederates, and a convention was called to consider the question of secession. The Convention refused to pass the ordinance, and the governor then determined to maintain a position of armed neutrality for the State. This was prevented by Captain Lyon, who was in command of the Union forces at St. Louis. He seized the United States arsenal, and put to rout the State militia.

**564. Battles.** — Several engagements ensued with varying success. The Union force at Carthage was defeated in July by the Missouri troops under command of General Price and General McCulloch. In August the Southern army gained a victory at Wilson's Creek. In this battle General Lyon was killed. In September General Price captured Lexington, and took as prisoners a large number of Union soldiers. General Fremont (¶ 528), now in command, drove Price southward as far as Springfield. General Hunter succeeded Fremont, and the Union army fell back to St. Louis. Afterward General Halleck took command, and drove Price out of the State into Arkansas. In November General U. S. Grant (¶ 656), after several successful engagements, made an attack upon a Confederate force, which had crossed over from Kentucky under command of General Pillow. This battle occurred at Belmont, and resulted favorably to the Confederates.

**565. Kentucky.** — In Kentucky an attempt was made to hold the State in a position of armed neutrality; but the effort failed, as it had in the case of Missouri. The large majority of the people in Kentucky were strongly Union in sentiment, and all efforts to ally this border State with the Southern cause failed. The Confederates now held a strong line of fortifications extending from the Cumberland Gap to the Mississippi River. They had fortified Cumberland Gap, Bowling Green, and Columbus, making a line through the entire length of the State of Kentucky. They had also fortified Fort Henry on the Tennessee River, Fort Donelson on the Cumberland, and Island No. 10 and Fort Pillow on the Mississippi, — all in Tennessee.

**566. A. S. Johnston.** — The Confederate forces of the West were placed under the command of General Albert Sidney Johnston. His effort was to protect the Memphis and Charleston Railroad, which connected the country west of the Mississippi with the entire eastern section of the Confederacy, and which enabled the Southern army to supply themselves with beef from Texas. By his fortifications on the Mississippi he intended to keep that river closed, so that the Union army could not penetrate the heart of the Confederacy with their gunboats.

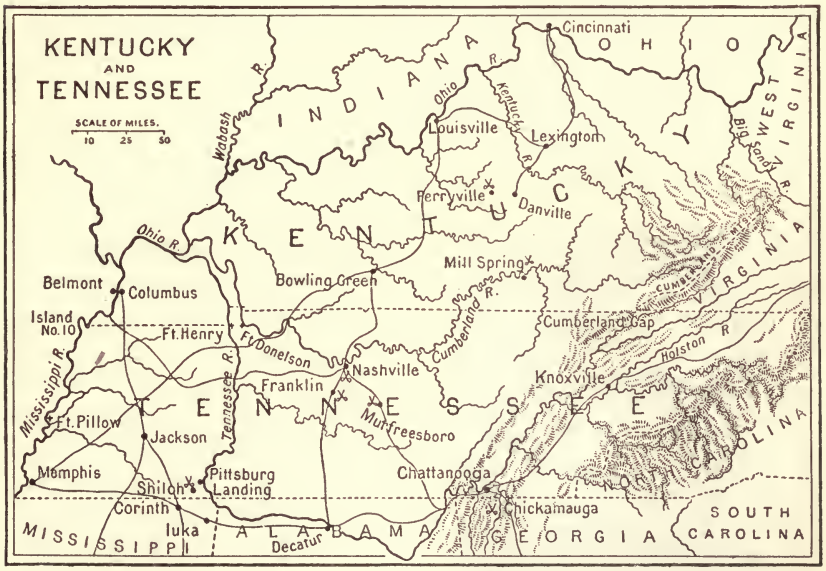


General A. S. Johnston.

(From a photograph taken at the age of 57, in the possession of his son, Col. Preston Johnston.)

**567. Forts Henry and Donelson.** — Early in 1862 General Grant, with a strong land force, assisted by Commodore Foote, with a fleet of gunboats, captured Fort Henry after an hour's fighting. The garrison, however, made their escape, and retreated to Fort Donelson. Grant, having sent the gunboats up the Cumberland, marched his army across, and attacked this strong fortification. The battle lasted three days. Grant's attack was so vigorous that the garrison attempted to break through the lines and escape to Nashville. They were driven back within their intrenchments.

**568. Surrender of Donelson.** — Generals Floyd and Pillow, who were in command of the Confederate forces, consulting their own safety, made good their escape, leaving General Buckner in command. Early on the morning of **February 16th, 1862,** Buckner sent a flag of truce to Grant, asking what terms of capitulation he would accept. Without hesitation or a moment's delay, Grant replied laconically, "No terms except unconditional and immediate surrender. I propose to move immediately upon your works." After this U. S. Grant was often interpreted "Unconditional Surrender Grant."




Buckner surrendered with fifteen thousand men, and the Confederate line of defence was thus broken.

**569. The Result.** — Nashville was soon occupied by the Union forces. Columbus and Bowling Green were evacuated, and occupied by the Northern army. The Confederates now fell back to Corinth. This important place is just within the northern limits of Mississippi, and was an important railroad centre. Strong forces were soon collected at this place, under command of A. S. Johnston and Beauregard. The next move of the Union army was toward Corinth.

**570. The Battle of Shiloh.** — General Grant had been placed in command of a new military district called the Department of Western Tennessee. He pushed his army up the Tennessee River, and posted it near Pittsburg Landing, at Shiloh. Here he awaited the arrival of General Buell with reinforcements. The Confederate army under A. S. Johnston and Beauregard numbered about forty thousand men. These generals determined to rout Grant's army before Buell could arrive. They attacked Grant early on Sunday morning, **April 6th.** The assault was sudden and unexpected, but the Union forces fought desperately. They were, however, compelled to fall back to the river, after a stubborn resistance during the entire day. General A. S. Johnston, who was one of the ablest generals in the Southern army, was killed in this engagement. His death was a severe loss to the Confederacy. Buell's army arrived the following night. Early Monday morning the Union general ordered an advance, and attacked the Confederates. Late in the day Beauregard withdrew his army to the intrenchments at Corinth.

**General Lew Wallace**, who was at Crump's Landing with five thousand men, moved at the sound of firing toward his proper place A courier announced the peril of the main army, and ordered him to Pittsburg Landing, where he arrived at dusk, after a march of eighteen miles, through woods and swamp. At the time of Johnston's mortal wound and the temporary confusion before Bragg restored order, Wallace's fresh division seems to have had the destiny of the day, if not of the Confederate army, in its grasp.

Admiral David G. Farragut.

(From a negative in the possession of the U. S. Government.)

**571. The Results of the Battle.** — The first day's fight clearly gave the victory to the Confederates. They captured many prisoners and large stores. The second day was favorable to the Union forces, and the Confederates, though resisting obstinately, were driven from the field. This was the most important battle which had yet been fought west of Virginia. General Halleck now took command of the Union army, and pushed forward steadily against the Confederates. Beauregard retreated from Corinth, and Halleck took possession of that place on the 30th of

May. The Union army took up a position upon the Memphis and Charleston Railroad, thereby cutting off southern communication with Memphis, and securing control of an additional section of the Mississippi River.

**572. Island No. 10 and Fort Pillow.** — The same day on which Grant defeated Beauregard at Shiloh, April 7th, General Pope, assisted by Commodore Foote, captured Island No. 10, taking more than five thousand prisoners. When Corinth had been evacuated by the Confederates, Fort Pillow was abandoned, and the Union army now held the country from Memphis nearly to Chattanooga. Various other engagements took place during the summer and fall, including those at Perryville, Iuka, Corinth, and Nashville.

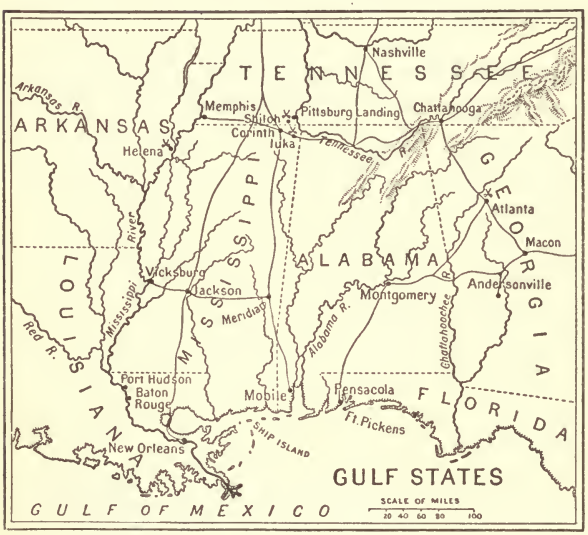
**573. The Battle of Stone River.** — Just at the close of the year two great armies met before Murfreesboro in Tennessee. For several days the carnage was frightful. The Union forces were commanded by General Rosecrans, and the Confederates by General Bragg. At first Bragg had the advantage, but Generals Thomas, Sheridan, and Hazen manifested great skill and firmness, and the day was saved for the Union cause. Bragg retreated, and the nation had gained another great victory.

**574. New Orleans.** — Early in 1862 Commodore Farragut had been sent to Ship Island, near the mouth of the Mississippi River, with a strong force of soldiers and a complete naval outfit. The Confederates had fortified the lower Mississippi, and prepared many obstructions to its navigation. They had numerous forts, iron-clads, and fire-rafts, and had obstructed the channel with iron chains. At length Commodore Farragut determined to sail past all these obstructions, and, selecting a dark night, he forced his way up the river. He boldly ran past their

**David Glasgow Farragut,** "the greatest naval commander the world has ever seen," was born in Tennessee, July 5th, 1801. His childhood was spent among the exciting scenes of frontier life, and before he reached the age of ten years he received a midshipman's commission in the United States navy. He had a varied experience in the War of 1812, though he was not fourteen years old when the war ended. After this he continued in the navy for some time, and received a lieutenant's commission in 1825.

When the Civil War broke out, Farragut found himself between two fires, — his love for the South and his love for his country. In April, 1861, he hastily left his home at Norfolk, Virginia, and in December received a commission to sail for New Orleans. His action in running the forts, and his success in capturing the city, stand unrivalled in the history of naval warfare. December 23d, 1864, the grade of vice-admiral was created, and Farragut was at once appointed to this position. This rank he held until the grade of admiral was created, July 25th, 1866. Admiral Farragut died in Portsmouth, New Hampshire, August 14th, 1870.

forts, defeated and destroyed their fleet of rams, and approached New Orleans. The Confederates had abandoned the city. General Benjamin F. Butler, in command of the land forces, took possession of the city on the 28th of April.




**575. The Mississippi River.** — The Confederates still held Vicksburg and Port Hudson, — two strongly fortified points. The Union forces, with their gunboats, kept the river open above Vicksburg. This prevented easy communication between the Confederates beyond the river and those on the eastern side. After the capture of New Orleans, Farragut, with his fleet, steamed up the river from New Orleans to Memphis, and returned, running the gauntlet of the Confederate batteries at Vicksburg and Port Hudson.

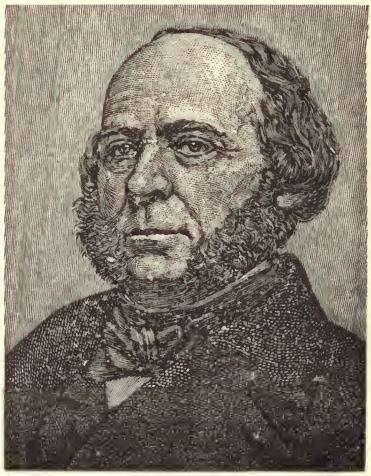
## CHAPTER LXXIII.

### THE WAR IN THE EAST.

**576. The "Trent" Affair.** — Late in 1861 the Confederate government commissioned two former United States senators — Mr. Mason and Mr. Slidell — as commissioners to London and Paris. They succeeded in sailing past the blockade, and reached Havana. At that port they embarked on an English mail steamer named the "Trent." Captain Charles Wilkes, commanding the United States steamship "San Jacinto," then at Havana, gave chase to the British steamer,

overhauled her, brought her to, went on board, and carried away the commissioners, November 8th, 1861. This act caused great excitement in England, and for a time there seemed to be serious danger of war between Great Britain and the United States. The American government had always strongly objected to the right which English war vessels had often claimed and exercised to search neutral vessels. It was not, therefore, inconsistent for the United States to disavow the act of Captain Wilkes, who had clearly gone beyond his authority; and our government, without censuring him, admitted that he had overstepped his powers, and gave up the commissioners to England.

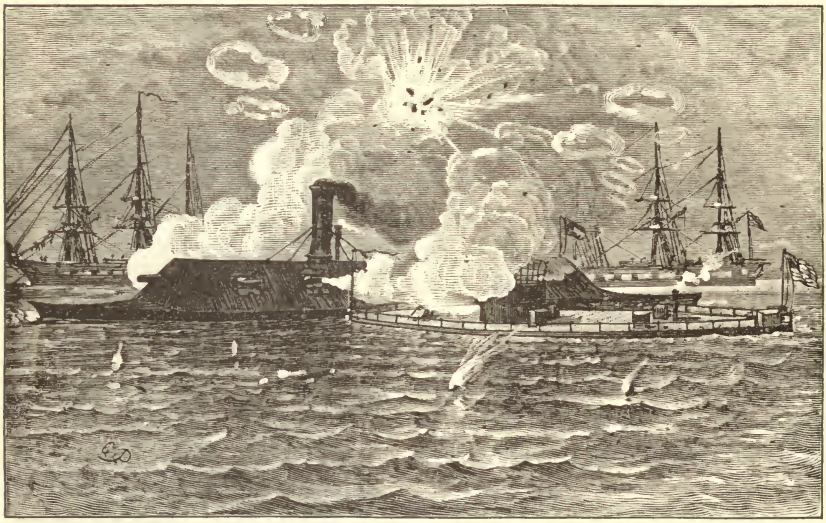
**577. The Position of Great Britain and France.** — Both England and France were at one time desirous of recognizing the independence of the Confederacy. They were, however, restrained from taking this step; but they both declared the Confederate States a belligerent power, entitled to make war and have war vessels. This gave to the Confederate vessels the right to take refuge in foreign harbors, and soon English ship-builders and merchants began to build cruisers for parties in the interest of the Confederate government. These vessels were often manned principally by British sailors, but they were commanded by Confederate officers.



John Ericsson.

**578. The "Merrimac."** — Early in the war the Confederates had taken possession of the navy-yard at Norfolk. At this navy-yard was a large United States frigate called the "Merrimac." This vessel the Confederates had turned into a new style of craft called an iron-clad ram, which they re-named the "Virginia." All that appeared above the water's edge was encased with heavy iron, so that all sorts of shot and shell would glance off and do her no harm. March 8th, 1862, this new iron-clad, being all ready, steamed out from Norfolk into Hampton Roads, where the United States had a fine fleet of war vessels lying at anchor. They opened fire upon this strange craft, but the shot bounded

harmlessly from her iron roof. She attacked the "Cumberland" with terrific energy, and in a few moments so seriously injured her that she sank. Turning her attention to the "Congress," she disabled this frigate, when darkness put an end to the conflict, and she retired to Norfolk. Great consternation seized the whole North. At once it appeared as though nothing could stop the "Merrimac" from sailing to the Northern cities, bombarding them and destroying their shipping, or from going south and breaking the blockade at all points. It was a day of fear and trembling.



The "Monitor" and the "Merrimac."

**579. The "Monitor."** — But relief was nearer at hand than any one knew. For some time past Captain John Ericsson, a native of Sweden, had been at work in New York, building an iron-clad on a new principle. He called it the "Monitor." It was a small craft compared with the huge "Merrimac," and carried but two guns, which were placed in a revolving turret. The deck of the vessel was flat, and scarcely appeared above the water's edge. The Confederates called this singular craft "a Yankee cheese-box on a raft." Providentially it came about that this new sea monster arrived at Hampton Roads that very evening after the "Merrimac" had put into Norfolk.

**580. The Battle between the Iron-Clads.** — The next day, **March 9th, 1862,** the "Merrimac" again sailed out to finish her work. As she appeared, the little "Monitor" placed herself between the wooden frigates and their huge enemy. The great giant and the little giant began firing at each other. The "Merrimac" ran, full speed, against the "Monitor," giving her a tremendous shock, but inflicting no serious damage. Five times the huge ram tried to sink the small iron-clad. The strange contest continued for four hours, and apparently neither vessel had injured the other. It had, however, become clear to the managers of the "Merrimac" that they could do nothing with their new antagonist. She was shot proof, and shell proof, and bomb proof. She could not be sunk, and, being smaller, she could move much easier and quicker than the "Merrimac." Consequently, the Confederate nondescript steamed back again to Norfolk, from which place she never again sailed. Later she was destroyed by the Confederates themselves. This contest of a few hours changed all modern methods of naval warfare. Hereafter wooden vessels play no part in naval conflicts.

**John Ericsson** was brought up in Sweden, in the midst of mining and railroad machinery. When he was twenty-three years of age, in 1826, he went to England to introduce a new engine which he had invented. He came to the United States in 1839, and at once on his arrival in this country he furnished designs to the United States navy department for the warship "Princeton," the first vessel which had its propelling machinery below the water line, out of the reach of hostile shot. This vessel was properly regarded as the pioneer of modern naval construction. He designed and built the "Monitor," in Greenpoint, New York, in 1861, for the United States government. She was built and launched, with steam machinery complete, in one hundred days. It was this haste in her building which brought her to Hampton Roads in season to attack the "Merrimac." "But for the victory of the 'Monitor,' the result of the war might have been changed and European interference attempted." Soon after her contest with the "Merrimac," a fleet of monitors was quickly built which defeated several iron-clad batteries. Many honors were bestowed on Ericsson for his inventions. He died in New York City, March 8th, 1889. In 1867, a huge monument, quarried in one piece from the neighboring granite mines, was set up in front of his birthplace, bearing the inscription in the Swedish language, "John Ericsson was born here, 31st July, 1803."

**581. The Virginia Campaigns.** — During the second and third years of the war Virginia was the great battle-ground. Here was almost constant fighting, including several distinct campaigns. The first of these was McClellan's campaign on the peninsula.

**582. The Peninsular Campaign.** — The Battle of Bull Run (¶ 559) had ended the first attempt to march the Union armies overland from Washington toward Richmond. Its result was so disastrous that McClellan conceived an essentially different plan for his

great campaign. This was nothing less than moving his army by water to Fortress Monroe, and thence toward Richmond by the peninsula which is formed by the James and the York rivers. The advantages of this plan were obvious. The troops and supplies could be transported by water to within one-half the distance from Richmond that Washington is. Moreover, if McClellan could succeed in opening the James River, then his water communication might carry him to some point in the immediate vicinity of the Confederate capital. It was necessary, however, that a part of his army, which he left under General McDowell, should remain in front of Washington, and another part, under General Banks, in the Shenandoah Valley, to prevent the Confederates from opening the way, by a sudden onset, to the national capital.

**583. Yorktown.** — By a rapid movement McClellan transferred his army to Fortress Monroe, and commenced his march up the peninsula. Meantime the Confederates had moved their force from Manassas Junction and fortified Yorktown (¶ 362). McClellan laid siege to the town. General Magruder, with less than fifteen thousand men, held the town, and maintained a bold line, thirteen miles in length on McClellan's front. McClellan ordered heavy siege-guns from Washington, and threw up the most elaborate earthworks by parallel approaches. Here his whole army was delayed an entire month, and the Confederates withdrew (May 4th), just as he was about to open fire upon the town.

**584. Williamsburg.** — General Magruder fell back ten miles westward to Williamsburg, where he had already built a strong fort called by his own name, and eight outlying redoubts. A severe battle took place here on the 5th of May, 1862. He was attacked by the division of General Hooker ("Fighting Joe," as he was called). Other troops soon arrived, and the contest was a severe one for nine hours. The Union loss was very large. Both sides claimed the victory. Magruder retreated during the night, and the pursuit was continued to a line seven miles from Richmond.

**585. The Panic at Richmond.** — The Confederates evacuated Norfolk, and destroyed the iron-clad "Merrimac." The James River was now open, and the "Monitor," with other Union vessels, steamed up toward Richmond, and soon were but eight miles from the

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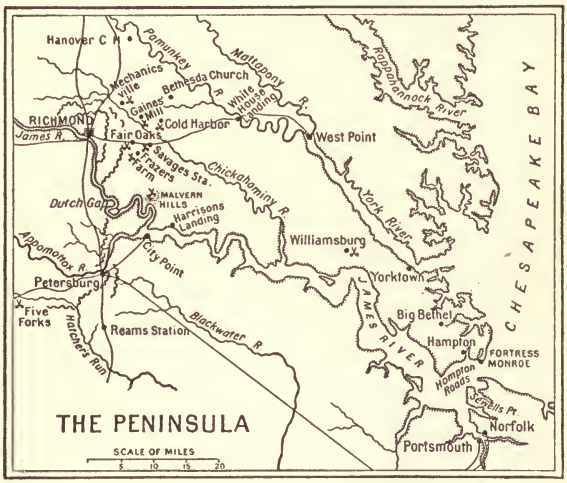
capital. The Union army was also within seven miles of the city. Richmond was now seriously threatened. The Confederate Congress had already adjourned. A report gained ground that the city was to be abandoned. McClellan should have continued his advance, and attacked the Confederates at once; but he discovered that a Confederate force at Hanover Court House threatened his railroad communications with White House Landing, near the head of York River. General Fitz-John Porter, by a quick movement, captured Hanover Court House. McClellan expected that General McDowell, who was at Fredericksburg with thirty thousand men, would, as soon as possible, join him. He therefore delayed the attack until McDowell might arrive. But his plans were interfered with by the counter plans of the enemy. General J. E. Johnston, who was in command of the Confederate army, ordered Stonewall Jackson (¶ 594) to make a rapid movement down the Shenandoah Valley and threaten Washington. This relieved Richmond, which soon recovered from the panic.




**586. The Panic at Washington.** — Jackson, having been reinforced by Ewell's division, had under his command fifteen thousand men. With this force he chased Banks down the valley in June, but the Union troops succeeded in escaping across the Potomac. The Union capital was now in a panic. Washington was threatened. It was not known how large a force Jackson had. The President at once ordered McDowell, at Fredericksburg, and Banks, at Harper's Ferry, to unite against this attacking force, and, at all hazards, capture Jackson and his army. The race began. It was now Jackson's turn to be alarmed, and to retreat with speed. He burned

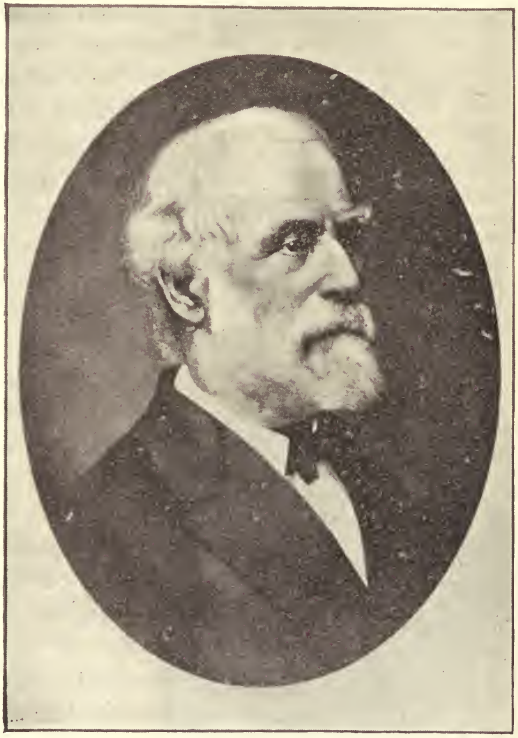
the bridges behind him, and at length made good his escape from the Shenandoah Valley; but he had accomplished the design which General Johnston intended. He had threatened Washington, held at bay three major-generals with a combined army of four times his own, prevented McDowell from joining McClellan, and by these sagacious and rapid movements had saved Richmond.

**Joseph Eggleston Johnston**, the second general of the Confederate army, was born in Virginia, in 1807. He was graduated from the West Point Academy in 1829, and served as lieutenant in the Seminole War. He won for himself great credit by his bravery, as lieutenant-colonel, in the Mexican War, in which he was twice severely wounded. He remained in the army until 1861, when his native State passed the Ordinance of Secession. He immediately entered the Confederate service as brigadier-general, and won the battle of Bull Run by means of his re-enforcements. In August, 1861, he was made general, and in 1863 he was assigned to the command of the Army of the Tennessee. He made vigorous efforts to save Vicksburg, but was unsuccessful. He was given command of the army opposite General Sherman in 1864, but was soon superseded by General Hood. Restored to command the next January, he was unable to check General Sherman, and surrendered his army to him, April 26th, 1865. After the war he held several offices in state and nation, and died in Washington in 1891.

**587. Battle of Fair Oaks and Seven Pines.** — McClellan's army was now divided by the Chickahominy. He had spread out his right flank with the hope of being joined by McDowell. Heavy rains ensued. The Chickahominy, which is a small stream running past the north side of Richmond and into the James River, rose rapidly and its bridges were carried away. The country on both sides of the river was in reality a great swamp, and the two parts of McClellan's army, being thus separated by the swollen river, could not help each other. Johnston at once, May 31st, attacked that part of the Union forces which was on the Richmond side of the river. The attack was impetuous, and made with tremendous force. Only McClellan's left wing could be utilized in repelling it. At first the Confederates appeared to be successful; but their advancing column was checked by General Sumner, and Johnston himself was severely wounded. Darkness coming on caused a cessation of the conflict. The next morning the Confederates renewed the assault; but the loss of their general seemed to dispirit the army, and they were repulsed with great loss. General Robert E. Lee now took command of the Confederates. Jackson hurried southward after his raid against Washington, and joined Lee. His infantry had marched more than four hundred miles, and had achieved astonishing results; from this time Jackson was considered one of the ablest Confederate generals, and his soldiers.

sometimes called "Jackson's foot cavalry," were the pride of the Confederate army of Virginia.

**588. The Seven Days' Battle.** — Lee and Jackson now attacked McClellan's right wing, — first at Mechanicsville, where they were repulsed, the next day at Gaines' Mills, where they succeeded in cutting off McClellan's supplies from the York River. McClellan now determined to swing his army over from the York to the James River. By this means he hoped to open up a new base of supplies on the James, and to unite the two wings of his army for a successful assault upon Richmond. Lee and Jackson followed, and for an entire week there was desperate fighting every day. The most important engagements were those of Savage's Station, Frazer's Farm, White Oak Swamp, and Malvern Hill. At the battle of Malvern Hill, July 1st, 1862, Lee was repulsed, and McClellan succeeded in reaching the James River in safety.



General Robert E. Lee.

**589. Failure of the Peninsular Campaign.** — The battle of Malvern Hill told so heavily upon Lee's forces that he was in no condition to renew the attack. The Union troops retired without opposition to Harrison's Landing, where they were protected by the gunboats on the James. The loss in these battles was very heavy on both sides, but the great advantage was with the Confederates. Richmond had been saved, and the Union army was hemmed in near the

James River under the protection of the gunboats. The North had certainly hoped that at this time Richmond would be captured. The disappointment was severe. President Lincoln immediately issued a call for three hundred thousand more troops. The two months which followed were sad days for the North. Recruiting was very slow. The people were disheartened. Their disappointment at McClellan's failure to capture the Confederate capital was akin to the public feeling after Bull Run (¶ 559). In September and October following, recruiting throughout the North was very brisk, and the number entering the service was largely increased by bounties which were now offered by the several States. Many regiments of troops were enlisted for a period of nine months' service, and others for three years or the war.

**Robert Edward Lee,** General of the Confederate army, was born in Virginia, January 19th, 1807. He was a son of General Henry Lee, or "Light-Horse Harry," and was also a relative of Richard Henry Lee, of the Continental Congress. Graduated from West Point in 1829, Captain Lee served in the Mexican War, was wounded at Chapultepec, and was made colonel for his bravery. He went with his State when it passed the Ordinance of Secession, and was at once appointed third in rank among the Confederate officers. General Lee was placed in command of the army of Northern Virginia in June, 1862, which position he held throughout the rest of the war.

General Lee was "one of the greatest of the modern commanders." He would have been a remarkable general under any conditions, but his pre-eminent rank was more marked, owing to the great obstacles which he had to overcome. He was hindered in all his movements by political and financial difficulties, but was able to hold his position, even against the boundless power of the Union, for nearly three years. General Lee is worthy of the great love which he has always received from the Southern people, and of the high esteem which has been accorded him by his enemies. His later life was spent as President of the Washington and Lee University, and his death occurred in the midst of his work, October 12th, 1870.

**590. Pope's Campaign.**— General Pope was in command of the defences of Washington, and at this time was stationed at the Rapidan. McClellan received orders from Washington to transfer his army from the James River to Acquia Creek, and place it under the command of General Pope. It was expected that Pope would begin a new advance upon Richmond from the North. As fast as McClellan's forces were withdrawn from the vicinity of Richmond, Lee started his troops on a march northward again to menace Washington. Pope met the Confederates on the old field of Bull Run. The Union force was defeated, and the second time, in a panic, the army fell back in confusion upon Washington. Lee himself now moved northward with such celerity that McClellan had hardly reached Washington when Lee crossed the upper Potomac, apparently intending to push on and

attack Baltimore or Philadelphia. Pope's shattered army was now united with McClellan's command, and the whole force was quickly put in motion to intercept Lee.

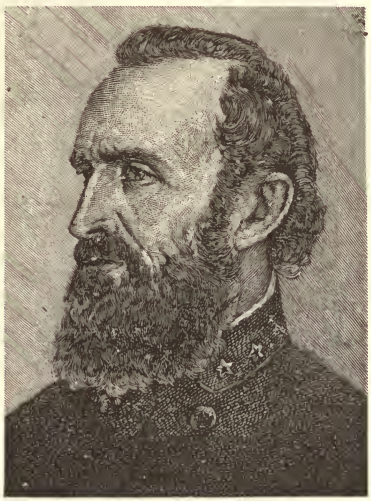
**591. South Mountain and Antietam.** — McClellan first encountered the Confederates at the passage of the South Mountain, where the Union forces won an easy victory. McClellan's whole army now pushed forward, and Lee, being reinforced by Jackson, who had captured Harper's Ferry, turned upon McClellan, and on the **17th of September, 1862,** fought the great battle of Antietam. This was a severe conflict. The loss on either side was about thirteen thousand. Practically, it was a drawn battle; but the two armies were on northern soil, where McClellan was constantly being reinforced, and Lee found it difficult to obtain supplies for his army. This battle, therefore, successfully stopped Lee's advance into the North, and he withdrew his entire force across the Potomac into Virginia. Lee's first invasion of the North thus proved a quick failure, and the Confederates retired to their old position near Fredericksburg. McClellan was severely criticised for not at once pursuing Lee and cutting off his army.

General Ambrose E. Burnside.

**592. General Burnside.** — The tide of public sentiment had turned against McClellan. He was in many respects an efficient officer, thorough in his organization of an army, and a splendid engineer, but the people considered him too slow in his movements against the enemy. General Ambrose E. Burnside was a West Pointer, had acquired celebrity by his invention of the Burnside rifle had proved himself, first at Bull Run, afterward in his expedition to North Carolina, and then in command of the ninth army corps, a brave and efficient general. While the Union army was on the march, following Lee from Harper's Ferry to Fredericksburg, the President relieved McClellan and placed General Burnside in command of the entire Army of the Potomac. Burnside took command

of the army on the 9th of November, 1862, at Warrenton, Virginia. He pushed forward from Warrenton to Falmouth. Here he was delayed in moving his army across the Rappahannock, because the pontoon bridges which he had ordered had not arrived. He had hoped also to reach there in advance of Lee; but before he could move his troops across the river, a Confederate force was posted upon the heights opposite ready to oppose his crossing. It was now December, and heavy rains had made the river impassable without pontoons, and had put the soil in such condition as to make long marches impossible. Prudence might dictate winter-quarters for the army, but, remembering the criticisms against McClellan's inactivity, Burnside determined to hazard a battle.

**593. Fredericksburg.** — On the **13th of December** was fought the important battle of Fredericksburg. Burnside was obliged to send his troops across the river under a heavy fire to storm the heights. The slaughter was frightful, and the Union forces must now recross the river. It was one of the worst defeats that the Union army had thus far suffered. Had the pontoon bridges arrived in season, so that Burnside could have crossed the river immediately upon his arrival, and occupied the heights of Fredericksburg, the result would doubtless have been very different. Burnside was a brave soldier, patriotic, generous, and magnanimous. A change of commanders was, however, necessary. The President refused to accept Burnside's resignation, but on the 26th of January, 1863, by order of the President, the command of the army was transferred to General Hooker.



"Stonewall" Jackson.

**594. Chancellorsville.** — After taking command, General Hooker reorganized and unified the army, and having crossed the Rappahannock with the main body of his forces some miles above Fredericksburg, he took a position in the wilderness near the little village of Chancellorsville. Here, on the 2d

and 3d of May, 1863, he fought a severe battle with the Confederates under Lee and Jackson. The result of this engagement was favorable to the Confederates, inasmuch as Hooker was obliged to retreat across the Rappahannock. The loss was fearful on both sides. The battle proved a great disaster to the Confederates, however, from the death of Stonewall Jackson. When Lee heard of Jackson's death he exclaimed that he "had lost his right arm."

**Thomas Jonathan Jackson**, or "Stonewall" Jackson, as he was popularly called, was born in Virginia, January 21st, 1824. Like the other great generals of the Confederate army, young Jackson entered West Point, from which academy he was graduated in 1846. Here he showed marked ability as a soldier, and was appointed lieutenant in the artillery on his graduation. After the Mexican War he resigned from the army, and became Professor of Natural Philosophy at Lexington, Virginia. At the beginning of the Civil War, Major Jackson was given command of a regiment of infantry, and as colonel captured the Federal Arsenal at Harper's Ferry, in May, 1861. It was his brigade which stood "like a stone wall" in the battle of Bull Run, thereby winning great admiration. General Jackson was conspicuous in each of the great battles in Virginia for the next two years, and proved himself to be General Lee's most valuable subordinate. He was fired upon, under a mistake, by men of his own command, in the battle of Chancellorsville, and died from the wound eight days later, May 10th, 1863. By this death the Confederate cause lost one of its most eminent generals, and one who was greatly beloved by every man in his corps.

**595. Longstreet and Suffolk.** — Norfolk was held by the Federal forces. Twenty-five miles from Norfolk, at the head of the Nansemond River, was the large village of Suffolk, connected with Norfolk by two railroads, — the Norfolk and Petersburg, and the Weldon Railroad. Suffolk was the key to Norfolk, and virtually commanded that portion of North Carolina which lies east of the Chowan. Suffolk was thoroughly fortified, and was held by a few thousand troops under command of General Peck. In the early spring of 1863 Lee detached Longstreet from his army, and sent him with forty thousand men to capture Suffolk. Several engagements took place with sharp fighting on both sides, but the advantages of shelter, and the co-operation of the gunboats upon the river, overbalanced the superior numbers of the Confederates, and all attempts to break through the Union lines were decidedly repulsed. Peck was soon reinforced by troops from the defences of Washington, until his army numbered twenty-five thousand. Longstreet's siege of Suffolk lasted twenty-three days, until the 3d of May, when he was called off by orders from Lee to join him as speedily as possible. Suffolk therefore remained in the hands of the Union forces. Longstreet immediately joined Lee, who was expecting a second attack from

Hooker. Hooker's losses were such, however, that he did not venture another contest.

**596. Along the Sea-coast.** — Several expeditions during the first year of the war had been sent by sea down the coast to capture and hold various points. In August, 1861, a fleet under command of Commodore Stringham, with land forces under General Butler, captured the forts on Hatteras Inlet, North Carolina. Later in the same year Commodore Dupont and General T. W. Sherman captured Port Royal, South Carolina. Hilton Head was occupied permanently by Federal forces, and from this place naval expeditions were put in operation against various Southern ports. During the winter of 1861–1862, an expedition of considerable magnitude was despatched with land and naval forces under General Burnside and Commodore Goldsboro against North Carolina. In February, 1862, they captured Roanoake Island with its garrison. A month later General Burnside fought the battle of Newbern, and took possession of that place. Soon after the Union forces captured St. Augustine, Fernandina, and other places in Florida. In April General Gilmore captured Fort Pulaski in Georgia, and Commodore Goldsboro took Fort Macon in North Carolina.

Thus the Federal forces occupied various points along the Atlantic coast, which gave them great advantage, and which diminished the necessary blockade squadron.

**597. General Summary.** — We have now considered the first half of the war as regards the time it occupied. During the first year the Union forces had experienced the great defeat at Bull Run (¶ 559), and the Confederates had been successful in several smaller engagements, but practically they had gained nothing from these successes. The Union had saved the States of Maryland, Kentucky (¶ 565), and Missouri (¶ 563), and had held western Virginia (¶ 560) and the national capital, Washington (¶ 586). They had organized a great army and an efficient navy, and actually laid siege to the whole Confederacy (¶ 596). They had secured along the coast various harbors for their blockading fleets, and to serve as points from which to make attacks upon neighboring territory. During the second year of the war the battle of Shiloh (¶ 570), the capture of Forts Henry (¶ 567) and Donelson (¶ 568), New Orleans (¶ 574), Roanoke Island (¶ 596), and the contest in Hampton Roads between

the "Monitor" and the "Merrimac" (¶ 580) had all proved substantial Union victories. Neither the Union nor the Confederacy had made gains in Virginia. The North had been saved from invasion at Antietam (¶ 591), while the South had driven the invading forces from the Peninsula (¶ 589), and had defeated the Union army at Fredericksburg (¶ 593) and at Chancellorsville (¶ 594). The Union lines had advanced across the State of Tennessee, the Mississippi River had been almost completely opened (¶ 575), and the blockade was growing more strict. The entire North was busy with its manufacturing and agricultural operations. The Confederacy had no commerce, and but few manufactories. Moreover, it was blockaded, and thus importations prevented.

**598. Foreign Affairs.** — No foreign government had been brought to recognize the Confederate States as an independent nation, as it had been generally understood that such recognition would at once necessitate a declaration of war on the part of the United States against such government. Foreign governments had, however, declared the Confederate States a belligerent power, which gave them many advantages.

Henry Ward Beecher.
(After an etching by Rajon, Paris.)

**599. Paper Money.** — The expenses of the war were so enormous on the part of the government that the necessity soon existed for the use of paper money (¶ 631). Early in 1862 Congress authorized the issuing of government notes, which were made legal tender in payment of debts. These notes were issued by the government in various denominations, promising to pay to the bearer on demand the sums which the face of the note indicated. At one time they amounted to about four hundred and fifty million dollars. These were called "Greenbacks," from the color of the ink used in printing the back of the note. The principal reliance of the government, however, for its funds, was placed on government bonds or promises to pay at some future date with interest. The bill authorizing

the National Bank currency did not pass Congress until early in 1863 (¶ 634).

**600. Emancipation.** — President Lincoln, from the first, had insisted that the war was only to preserve the Union. It was not in the interest of one section over another. Disputing the right of secession, the government claimed the right of self-preservation. The Union was to be maintained at all hazards. As the war progressed, however, a strong feeling prevailed in the North that, as slavery was the real, principal cause of the war, the President should attack slavery as a war measure. After the battle of Antietam, President Lincoln issued his first Emancipation Proclamation. This proclamation was only a warning. In itself it did nothing. It merely gave notice to the seceded States that unless they returned to the Union before the close of the year he would declare their slaves free. As no State did return, he issued, on **January 1st, 1863**, his real Emancipation Proclamation. This was put forth as a war measure, and it declared that all slaves should hereafter be free in the States then in rebellion.

**Henry Ward Beecher.** — The English people were greatly interested in the American war. In many respects the sympathy seemed to be with the Southern Confederacy. Not until after the Emancipation Proclamations of President Lincoln had shown that the war had become a contest for and against slavery was the English nation ready to be cordial to the Union. Rev. Henry Ward Beecher greatly advanced the interests of the United States by his eloquent speeches before British audiences during the summer of 1863. Mr. Beecher was pastor of one of the largest churches in Brooklyn, and eminent, not only as a preacher, but also as a political and popular lecturer.

**601. The End of Slavery.** — This proclamation did not abolish slavery in the United States. It had no application in the border States, as they were called, which had not seceded. Slavery therefore existed legally, as heretofore, in Delaware, Maryland, West Virginia, Kentucky, and Missouri. The immediate effect of the proclamation was that the army and navy thereafter considered all negroes as free men, and refused to allow their former masters to treat them as slaves. Soon after, colored men were enlisted as soldiers and sailors in the army and navy. It should be distinctly borne in mind that slavery was not finally abolished in this country until the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution was ratified in 1865 (¶ 644).

# CHAPTER LXXIV.

## THE DARKEST HOUR AND THE DAWN.

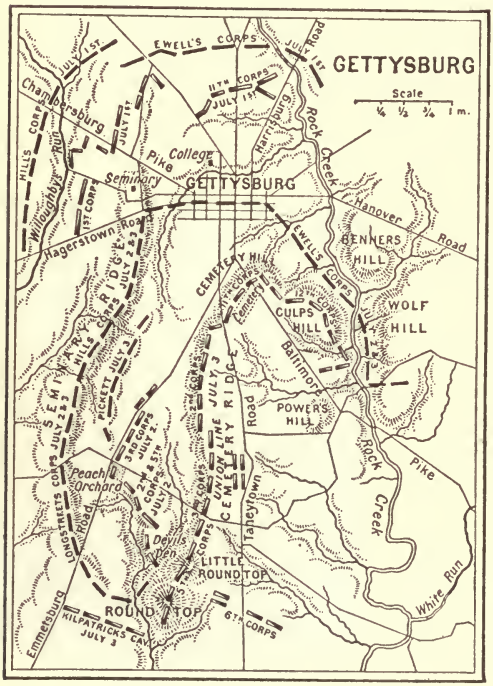
**602. Lee's Second Invasion.** — For two years the war for the Union had been bravely fought, but not with great success. The Confederates had fought with equal bravery, and, although generally with less numbers, they had prevented any marked gain by the Union forces. The spring campaign of 1863 in the East had proved disastrous to the Union cause, especially in Hooker's failure at Chancellorsville. Lee, emboldened by his success in this engagement, determined once more to cross the Potomac, and carry the war into Union territory. The Confederate army by rapid marches pushed across northern Virginia, crossed Maryland, and marched into Pennsylvania. Hooker, by orders from the President, turned over the command of the army to General Meade. Meade at once hurried forward the Army of the Potomac to prevent Lee from attacking Washington or Baltimore. Lee apparently was aiming directly at Harrisburg, the capital of the State.

General George G. Meade.
(From a negative in the possession of the U. S. Government.)

**603. Gettysburg.** — Gettysburg was a beautiful town of three thousand inhabitants, pleasantly situated in a little valley surrounded by hills, slopes, and elevated plateaus. It is the centre of a well-cultivated and fertile region. On the **first day of July, 1863,** the Confederate advance, under Hill and Ewell, met the advance corps of the Union army, under Reynolds and Howard. After a spirited engagement the Confederates drove them southward through the town to an elevated line along Culp's Hill and Cemetery Ridge, overlooking the town. This day's fight was a brilliant success on the part

of the Southern army. The Federals sustained a great loss in the death of General Reynolds.

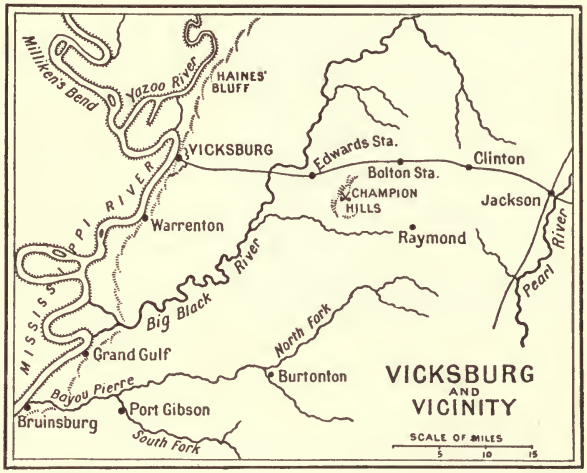
**604. The Second Day.** — During the night following, the larger part of the Federal army came up and formed their line along a series of ridges extending from Culp's Hill on the right to Round Top on the left. The Confederates took position on the opposite side of the town, and extended themselves for twelve miles or more, their extreme right being opposite Round Top, and their left opposite Culp's Hill. The situation was favorable to the Federals. On July 2d and 3d was fought the most important battle of the war. Here occurred the most fearful charges, advances, and retreats, and the most terrific artillery fire.




**605. The Third Day.** — The centre of the Union forces was about Cemetery Ridge; and on the afternoon of the third day Lee suddenly opened an artillery fire, which was concentrated upon Cemetery Ridge from one hundred and fifty pieces of artillery. For two hours the air was alive with shot and shell. In all the annals of war perhaps no instance can be found of a braver assault, a more persistent attack, or a more heroic repulse than in Pickett's charge, which occurred also on the third day of the battle. The steadiness of the Union troops in resisting this charge and obliging the Confederates to retreat was an illustration of the bravest heroism and the most devoted patriotism to be found in history.

**606. The Result.** — The battle was over. The Federal army had won. A successful invasion of the North became impossible.

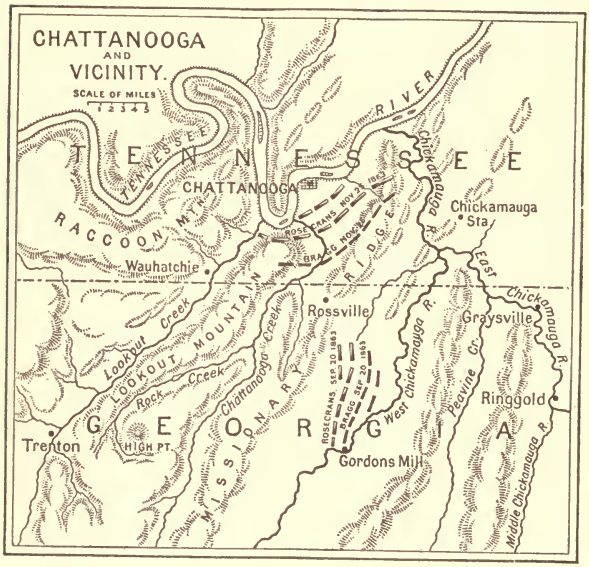
Gettysburg had put an end to that idea. But the South could never replace the thousands of Lee's veterans who went down in the terrible conflict. The losses on both sides were terrific. In the three days' contest the Union army lost more than twenty-three thousand men in killed, wounded, and prisoners, and the Confederate loss was equally large. Nothing remained for Lee but to recross the Potomac, which he did, slowly followed by Meade and the Army of the Potomac. Gettysburg was really the dawn of the new day (Appendix F).




**607. Events in the West.** — The 4th of July, 1863, was a marked day for the people of the North. Not only had the battle of Gettysburg been won, but military events in the West were greatly in favor of the Union cause.

**608. Vicksburg and Port Hudson.** — In order to gain complete control of the Mississippi (¶ 575), thereby preventing the Confederate army from obtaining supplies from the country beyond the river, it was necessary that the Union forces should capture Vicksburg and Port Hudson. General Banks pushed up the river and attacked Port Hudson. General Grant moved down the river and attacked Vicksburg. For two months he endeavored to cut a canal across a short bend in the river so as to turn the course of the river away from Vicksburg. Finally he moved his army still farther south, crossed the river, moved northeast, and attacked the stronghold from the eastern side. The Confederate army of the West was under the command of General Joseph E. Johnston, a most skilful general. General Pemberton was in command at Vicksburg. Grant separated Johnston's army from that under Pemberton; then, attacking Johnston, he drove him eastward

beyond Jackson. Returning, he hemmed in Pemberton's forces at Vicksburg, and laid siege to the town. Thus he threatened Johnston in the rear, and attacked Pemberton in the front. The siege was managed with both strategy and skill. Only one event could result. Pemberton's army was starved out. After a siege of six weeks Pemberton surrendered with his entire force. The surrender took place on the **Fourth of July, 1863,** the day following the close of the battle at Gettysburg. Port Hudson surrendered on the 9th of July.




**609. Chickamauga.** — While Grant was laying siege to Vicksburg, Rosecrans, who occupied Murfreesboro, moved south, and obliged the Confederates to evacuate Chattanooga and retire still further south, where they took up a position upon the Chickamauga. Here, on the 19th and 20th of September, was fought a severe battle, which resulted in Rosecrans' defeat. His army retreated to Chattanooga, but the retreat was covered by a part of his command, under General Thomas, who held his ground obstinately and thereby prevented more serious disasters. General Bragg, with the Southern army, followed and hemmed in the Union forces at Chattanooga, cutting off their supplies.

**610. Missionary Ridge.** — Grant, who had been made famous by the capture of Vicksburg, was now placed in command of the western armies. He hastened to Chattanooga, and found Bragg's army posted along Missionary Ridge. The Confederates were so strongly fortified as apparently to defy attack. Grant ordered an

attack along Bragg's line upon Missionary Ridge. The Ridge was so steep that the Confederate artillery could not be sufficiently depressed to reach the storming party as they ascended the heights. Bragg's entire line was therefore captured by a sudden assault.

General George H. Thomas.
(From a negative in the possession of the U. S. Government.)

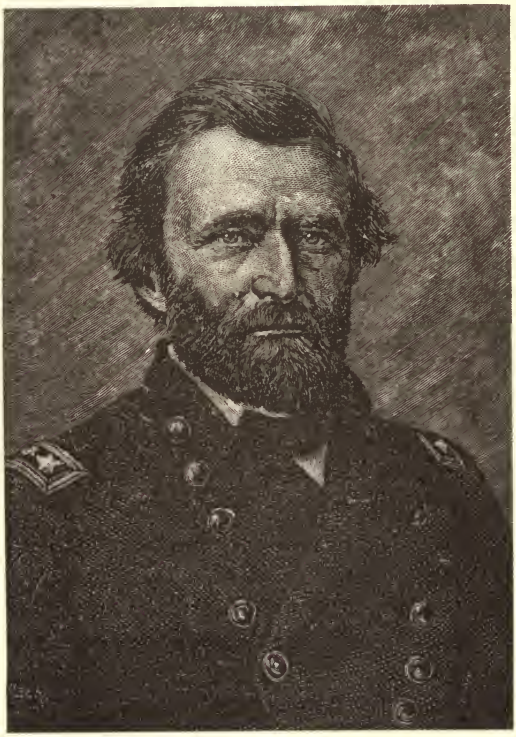
**611. Lookout Mountain.** — Lookout Mountain also witnessed a unique battle. A portion of Bragg's troops were stationed upon a plateau high upon the mountain, where sometimes the clouds settled down around the mountain below. Here occurred what is sometimes called "The Battle above the Clouds." It was, however, an insignificant affair, but entirely successful to the Union side. Grant had been reinforced by two corps from the Army of the Potomac, under Hooker, and Sherman had hastened up by forced marches from Iuka, two hundred miles away. In November, also, Thomas captured Orchard Knob. Bragg's army was routed, and the Union forces were left in possession of Chattanooga. These successes were brilliant, and added new laurels to the already great popularity of General Grant.

**612. Burnside at Knoxville.** — Longstreet, with a considerable force, had shut up Burnside at Knoxville. After the Confederates had retreated from the vicinity of Chattanooga, Grant sent Sherman (¶ 626) to the assistance of Burnside (¶ 592) at Knoxville. On the 30th of November Longstreet made an assault, but was repulsed with heavy loss, and, hearing of Sherman's approach, he abandoned the siege and retired toward Virginia. The fall campaign in the West was now practically ended. Eastern Tennessee was in the hands of the Union forces, and the gate was open through which Sherman was subsequently to pass on his march through the heart of the Confederacy.

# CHAPTER LXXV.

## GRANT AND LEE.—SHERMAN AND JOHNSTON

**613. The Position of the Armies.** — During the last year of the war the Union forces were principally massed in two great armies under Grant (¶ 656) and Sherman (¶ 626). The Confederate forces were also massed in two great armies under Lee (¶ 589) and Johnston (¶ 586). Lee was in Virginia with Grant threatening him. Johnston was at Dalton, in western Georgia, in a mountainous country, where it would be difficult to drive him back into the level region to the eastward. Grant now received the rank of Lieutenant-General, and was placed in command of all the armies. Grant and Sherman agreed on a plan of campaign which they felt assured would prove successful in the capture of all the Confederate armies and the overthrow of the Confederacy. They determined that the movement of the two armies should begin at the same time, and that each should keep his opponent so thoroughly occupied that the two divisions of the Confederate army could not help each other.



**General U. S. Grant.**
(After a photograph taken at the time of the siege of Vicksburg.)

**614. The Wilderness.** — Grant started for Richmond from the Rappahannock, through the country known as the Wilderness. The struggle began almost immediately, and for several weeks the fighting was intense, and the slaughter the most frightful of the whole war. The obstacles threatening Grant's success were extreme. A veteran army was before him. He was in the enemy's country, which itself was indeed a wilderness; and whatever movement he undertook he was sure to find a formidable opposing force in front of him. Here he showed his skill and strategy, especially by the simple device of "flank movements." Instead of a bull-dog attack in front, whenever he found his opponent in position, he simply marched his army past the enemy's flank, and forced him to retreat to a new position. In this way, with fearful slaughter, day by day, he pushed forward until his army had reached the Chickahominy, and Lee, with almost his entire force, was within the defences of Richmond. Grant lost nearly thirty thousand men, and Lee about eight thousand.

**615. The Defences Impregnable.** — Grant was sagacious enough soon to discover that the defences upon the north side of Richmond were impregnable. At one time he assaulted the entire Confederate line at once, but was repulsed with heavy loss. He therefore determined to move his army to the other side of the James River and attack Richmond from the south. In doing this, it became necessary to follow almost the exact line over which McClellan had passed two years before in his seven days' fight. Having passed the river, Grant next attacked Petersburg.

**616. The Petersburg Campaign.** — The Confederate fortifications were so formidable that they could not be taken by assault. Grant therefore laid siege to Petersburg. Meantime he determined to push around still further to the westward, and, if possible, thus extend his left flank so as to be able finally to cut off the railroads which brought supplies for Lee's army. These movements obliged the Confederates to be constantly alert, continually to face Grant with new fortifications, and Lee was thereby prevented from sending any reinforcements to Johnston.

**617. Sheridan and Winchester.** — Grant had retained with his army his best cavalry-general, — the intrepid Phil Sheridan. Sheridan's cavalry was sent by Grant into the Shenandoah Valley, where

General Early with twenty thousand men was making a raid with the intent to threaten Washington. "The movement out of Baltimore, by General Lew Wallace, to attack a force far superior to his own, on the Monocacy River, so delayed the enemy," according to General Grant's statement, "as to enable him to get troops from City Point, Virginia, in time to save the city" of Washington. Sheridan was placed in command of all the troops in that region. He defeated Early at Winchester and Fisher's Hill, after which Early retreated rapidly up the Shenandoah Valley. Being reinforced, he returned and surprised the Union army at Cedar Creek. Sheridan being absent, his forces yielded and began a rapid retreat in great confusion. At Winchester, twenty miles away, he heard the cannonading, returned upon a rapid gallop, and arrived just at the critical moment. As he rushed along the road upon his fiery horse foaming with perspiration, he shouted, "Turn, boys, turn; we are going back." His presence was so magnetic that the men who had already retreated followed him into the fight, and secured a victory. "Sheridan's Ride" has been immortalized in a stirring poem by T. Buchanan Read.

General Philip H. Sheridan.

**618. Sherman and Atlanta.** — Leaving Grant daily pushing his siege at Petersburg, let us see what Sherman is doing further south. Sherman's army consisted of perhaps one hundred thousand men. His first movement was against his antagonist at Dalton in Georgia. He had to pass through a mountainous country, largely wooded, for a hundred miles, where he found the Confederates posted in a series of well-fortified positions, some of them almost impregnable. He continued his skirmishing, both armies being led by consummate strategists. Sherman's general plan was to drive Johnston into one of his strongholds, and then flank him and push forward. His force was superior to the Confederates, and he subsisted largely upon the

country through which he was passing. Bloody battles were fought at Dalton, Resaca, Dallas, Lost Mountain, and Kenesaw Mountain. It was nearing the middle of July, 1864, when Sherman presented himself before the city of Atlanta, within whose intrenchments Johnston had then retired.

**619. The Capture of Atlanta.** — Although Johnston had handled his army with consummate skill, yet, as he was inevitably everywhere unsuccessful, Davis displaced him and put General Hood in command. As Johnston's defensive policy had been criticised by the authorities at Richmond, it seemed necessary for Hood to assume the offensive. Three times, therefore, he attacked Sherman, and each time he was completely repulsed with terrible slaughter. After this, Sherman executed another flank movement, taking with him his entire supply train with fifteen days' rations, and moving his whole force so as to cut off completely Hood's line of supplies. This brought about the evacuation of the city, September 2d, 1864.

**Philip Henry Sheridan,** the hero of Winchester, was born March 6th, 1831, at Albany, N. Y. As a boy, "Phil" showed signs of a fondness for military affairs. He graduated from West Point in 1853, and for about eight years served in the western Territories. Colonel Sheridan's active service in the Civil War began in the summer of 1862, in Mississippi. Transferred, a little later, to the Army of the Ohio, he was made major-general for his bravery in the battle of Murfreesboro. In 1864 General Sheridan took command of the cavalry corps of the Army of the Potomac, and to the end of the war he proved the right man in the right place. Sheridan was made lieutenant-general in 1869, and on his death-bed was honored with the rank of general. Generals Grant and Sherman were the only ones who had previously held that rank. General Sheridan died August 5th, 1888.

**620. The Results of Sherman's Success.** — Sherman had now been four months on the march. He had fought ten pitched battles and many smaller engagements, and although he had lost fully thirty thousand men, yet he had inflicted a heavy loss upon the Confederate army and had cut them off from their source of manufactured supplies. At Atlanta and other towns in Georgia were large manufacturing establishments which furnished the Confederate army with wagons, harnesses, clothing, and all sorts of military supplies. The source of these supplies was now entirely cut off.

**621. Hood invades Tennessee.** — At this point an unexpected turn of affairs takes place. Whatever supplies Sherman received from Union sources were brought to him over a single line of railroad from Nashville. Hood evidently supposed that if he should invade Tennessee, cutting off the source of Sherman's supplies, Sherman would

be obliged to follow him, which would transfer the battle-ground from the heart of Georgia back northward into Tennessee. In this he was mistaken; and when Hood started northward with his whole army of forty thousand men, Sherman cut entirely loose from his base of supplies, pushed on toward Savannah, subsisting his army entirely upon the country through which he passed. The two armies had been fighting each other, but now each was hurrying away from the other with all possible speed. Hood crossed the Tennessee River, compelling General Schofield to fall back to a fortified position at Franklin, on the Harpeth, twenty miles below Nashville. The battle of Franklin was one of the most desperate of the war, the Confederates losing four generals and nearly six thousand men. Schofield repelled all attacks, destroyed the bridges, and withdrew in good order to Nashville, leaving about two hundred wounded behind. Hood crossed the Harpeth and advanced to the siege of Nashville, feeling confident of its capture. This place was thoroughly fortified, the Union forces being under the command of General Thomas. After a siege of two weeks, during which nothing had been accomplished, Thomas marched out of his intrenchments, and after severe fighting for two days drove the Confederates out of their intrenchments, captured many prisoners, and forced Hood to a precipitate retreat. Hood's army was now destroyed.

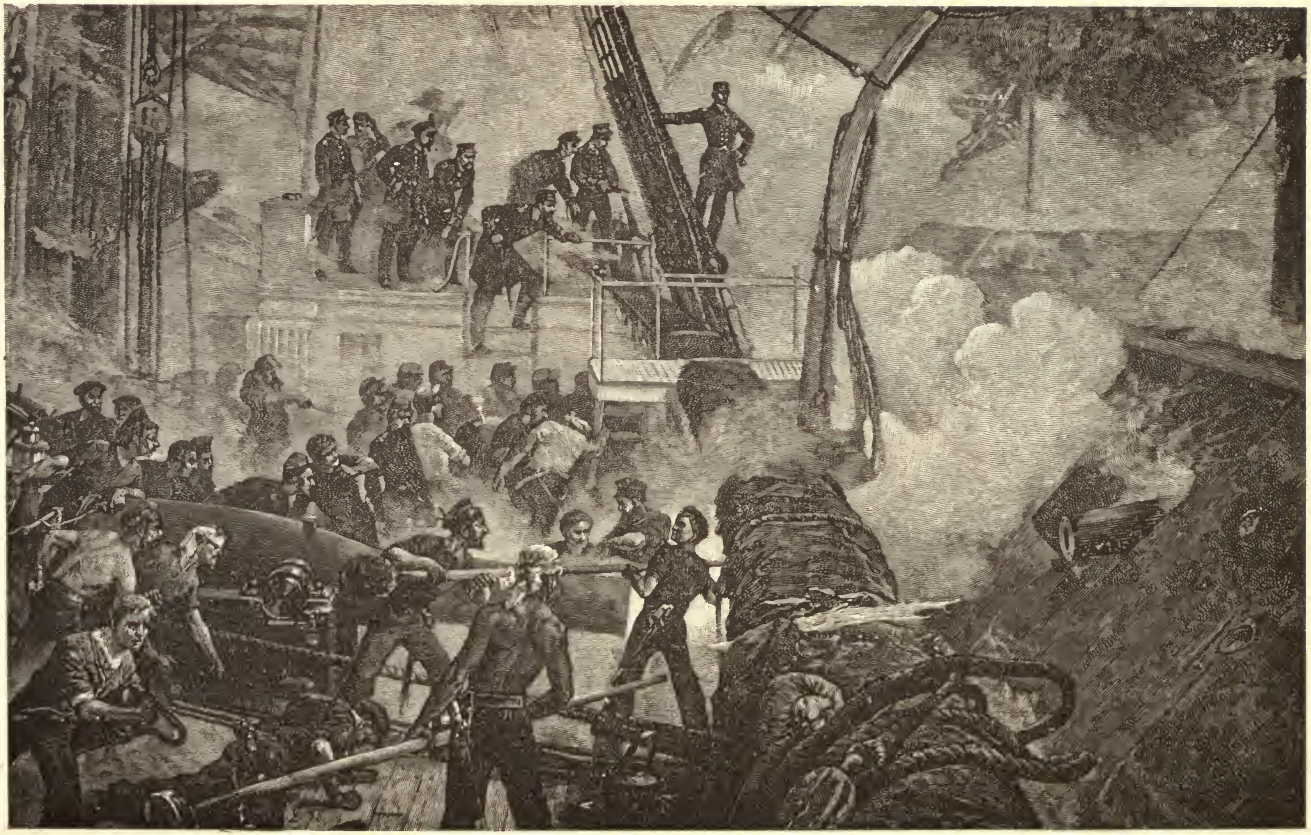
General William T. Sherman.

**622. Sherman's March to the Sea.** — Sherman, confronted by no considerable military force, burned the depots, factories, and important buildings in Atlanta, and, dividing his force into columns, pushed onward across Georgia toward the sea, destroying the railroads and foraging upon the country. After a march of five weeks, covering three hundred miles, he reached the coast, took Fort McAllister and captured Savannah, **December 21st, 1864.** Sherman had now accomplished with entire success one of the most famous marches in all

modern history. He had devastated a tract of country sixty miles wide and three hundred long in the heart of the enemy's territory. He had destroyed three hundred miles of railroad, as well as the principal sources of the enemy's military supplies, and had demonstrated the weakness of the Confederacy. Sherman passed the winter in Georgia and South Carolina, constantly harassing whatever

forces of the enemy he could find, and capturing one point after another, with constant regard to the cutting off of supplies for the Confederate army.

**623. Mobile Bay.** — While Generals Grant and Lee were facing each other in Virginia, and Generals Sherman and Johnston were fighting about Atlanta, the great naval battle of the war occurred in Mobile Bay. Admiral Farragut, with a fleet of fourteen wooden and four iron-clad vessels, attacked Admiral Buchanan, who commanded three gunboats and one ram. Buchanan was also aided by the three strongly garrisoned forts, Gaines, Morgan, and Powell, at the



Farragut at Mobile Bay.

entrance to the harbor. The first disaster was the destruction of the Union iron-clad "Tecumseh," which was sunk by a torpedo. Farragut, with great bravery, ran his flagship "Hartford" into the thickest of the cannonading, and finally succeeded in capturing the ram "Tennessee," but not until she had become unmanageable. The other Confederate vessels were destroyed or driven off. After being shelled for several days, Fort Powell was abandoned, and the other forts surrendered. The contest lasted from August 5th to the 23d, 1864.

## CHAPTER LXXVI.

### THE END OF THE WAR.

**624. The Capture of Five Forks.** — On March 29th, 1865, Sheridan, with a large body of cavalry and a strong force of infantry, pushed out from Grant's left wing with the intention of passing around to Lee's rear, thereby cutting off his supplies. He succeeded in planting a strong force of infantry behind the Confederates at Five Forks, which was a small place about twelve miles westward from Petersburg. April 1st the garrison surrendered, and Sheridan took five thousand prisoners. Lee at once saw that he could no longer maintain his position. The enemy had turned his right flank, and he was threatened with an attack in the rear.

**625. The Fall of Richmond.** — At four o'clock Sunday morning, April 2d, the entire Union army began an advance along the whole line. Before noon the Confederate intrenchments were in many places deserted and thousands of prisoners were captured. That day while the Confederate President Davis was at church, a messenger handed him a note. This was from General Lee, informing him that it was necessary for the Confederate army to leave Richmond immediately. He at once left the church and hastily withdrew from the city. That night both Petersburg and Richmond were evacuated, and the next morning the Federal troops marched into the Confederate capital.

**626. Lee surrenders his Army at Appomattox.** — Lee retreated toward Lynchburg with the intention of making his way to North Carolina

and joining Johnston, who was now in command of the remnants of Hood's army. Grant immediately gave chase. The cavalry under Sheridan passed around beyond the Confederates, thereby cutting off their retreat to Lynchburg. Nothing remained for the brave Confederate general but to surrender. In answer to a flag of truce, the two great generals met at Appomattox, and Lee proposed to surrender the remnants of his army. On the afternoon of **April 9th, 1865**, therefore, the army of Virginia laid down their arms near Appomattox Court House and turned toward their homes. Grant accepted their paroles not to take up arms against the United States until exchanged, and allowed all officers to retain their private baggage and horses. Nearly thirty thousand Confederate officers and soldiers were paroled at Appomattox and their arms given up.

**William Tecumseh Sherman**, the hero of the Civil War, was born in Ohio, February 8th, 1820, and died February 14th, 1891. He was graduated with high rank from the West Point Academy in 1840, and at once served in Florida, in the Seminole War. He remained in the army until 1853, when he resigned his commission and entered business. Captain Sherman rejoined the army immediately upon the outbreak of the Civil War, and with the rank of colonel, took part in the first battle of Bull Run. He was promoted for gallantry, being made brigadier-general. The next year General Sherman joined General Grant's army, and after the battle of Shiloh was made major-general. In 1864 General Grant was placed in command of the entire army, and General Sherman was given the charge of the armies of the Mississippi, the Ohio, the Cumberland, and the Tennessee. After the war, General Sherman was made lieutenant-general, and in 1869 General of the Armies of the United States. In 1883 he retired from the army, and lived in New York City until his death in 1891.

**627. Sherman's March through the Carolinas.** — In February Sherman started his army on the march northward. As before, it moved in columns, covering a breadth of fifty miles. He captured Columbia and it was burned at night. The Confederates evacuated Charleston. Johnston, being now in command, opposed Sherman's advance with great vigor. Sherman pushed forward to Goldsboro' and was joined by General Schofield, who had come up from Wilmington, and General Terry from Newbern. When these three armies were united, they numbered not less than a hundred thousand men. On the 26th of April Johnston surrendered his army to General Sherman on the same terms as had been given to Lee by Grant. On the 4th of May General Taylor in Alabama surrendered his force to General Canby, on substantially the same terms, with the additional stipulation that "Transportation and subsistence is to be furnished at public cost for the officers and men, after surrender, to the nearest practicable point to their homes."

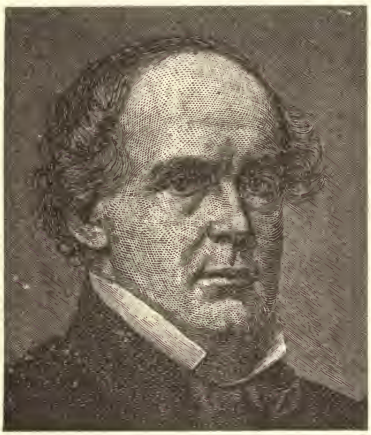
**628. The End.** — Other smaller Confederate forces soon after surrendered, and the war was at an end. The entire number of Confederate soldiers paroled in their several armies was one hundred and seventy-four thousand two hundred and twenty-three. Some regiments were reduced to such an extent that they could muster but from eleven to sixty-five men. Ten regiments consolidated numbered but two hundred and thirty-eight men. Eight regiments of Texans, originally ten thousand strong, numbered four hundred and fifty-six in all. The Union muster-rolls on the first of March aggregated nearly a million men all told, while the entire number of men mustered into the national service during the war was two million six hundred and eighty-eight thousand five hundred and twenty-three. This included all sorts of enlistments in periods of from three months to four years (¶ 638).

The "Alabama" was the most famous of the English-built privateers employed by the Confederates. It captured scores of American merchantmen, and made long and prosperous cruises in various parts of the world. The "Alabama" sailed into the French harbor of Cherbourg, and soon the Federal gunboat, "Kearsarge," appeared outside the harbor. The commander of the "Alabama" challenged the "Kearsarge" to fight, which offer was immediately accepted. The two vessels were fairly matched, and the battle began a little before noon, June 19th, 1864. The French thronged the neighboring shores, and saw the "Kearsarge" sink the "Alabama" within two hours after the first gun was fired. This destruction of the terrible privateer caused great rejoicing throughout the Union, which was increased by the capture of the "Georgia," in August, and of the "Florida" in October of the same year.

**629. Assassination of President Lincoln.** — As soon as Richmond was evacuated, President Lincoln, who had gone to the front to confer with Grant concerning his final movement against Lee, made a hasty visit to Richmond, took a drive through the principal streets, and returned to Washington on the day of Lee's surrender. On the evening of **April 14th**, the President, while seated in a box overlooking the stage at Ford's Theatre, was shot by an assassin who leaped over the railing upon the stage, shouted, "*Sic semper tyrannis*," and escaped from the building. The President lingered a few hours, and at his death the wail of the people north, south, east, and west was universal and their grief beyond expression. The joy of the nation at the prospect of peace was suddenly turned into the deepest mourning. The assassin, John Wilkes Booth, an actor, was pursued for several days and finally overtaken and shot.

**630. Capture of Jefferson Davis.** — President Davis and his family, his cabinet and military guard, hastily left Richmond by rail, and

escaped to Danville. Here he heard of Lee's surrender and immediately retreated to Greensboro', North Carolina. There leaving the railroad, he pushed forward to Washington, Georgia. Meanwhile, his guard, which had consisted of two thousand cavalry soldiers, gradually dwindled away, and his cabinet officers one by one deserted him. Journeying now by wagon and on horseback, he encamped for the night at Irwinsville, Georgia, and on the morning of the 10th of May he was captured. He was imprisoned in Fortress Monroe, but was finally set at liberty without a trial, largely at the solicitation of Horace Greeley of New York. The United States executed no one for treason, at the close of the war.



Salmon P. Chase.

(From a negative in the possession of the U. S. Government.)

**631. Civil Affairs.** — The preceding pages have carried the history of the Civil War to its end. In order to obtain a consecutive account of the military affairs, many of the civil matters have been omitted, and will be discussed at this point. The Department of the Treasury was one of the most important during these four years. It belonged to Secretary Chase to devise means for obtaining the vast revenue which was needed to carry on the war (¶ 599). One of the last acts of the Congress which ended March 3, 1861, was to pass the so-called "Morrill Tariff Act." Since 1846 the system of a tariff for revenue had been used by the government, but the tariff of 1861 was a distinctly protective measure. After the war began, the duties on imports were frequently increased until they became nearly three times as large as in 1861.

**632. Internal Revenue.** — The other source of income which has been commonly employed by the nation is that of the Internal Revenue. The most common form is the excise tax, levied on goods made and sold within the country. Besides the excise, taxes were levied on incomes, legal documents, and in other ways, all of which were classed as internal revenue. These taxes were greatly

increased during President Lincoln's administration, so that about three hundred million dollars were raised in this manner in one year.

**633. Bonds.** — These two sources of revenue proved to be far from sufficient. It soon became necessary to borrow money for the use of the government. The banks and well-to-do people loaned money to the government by the purchase of United States bonds. These bonds were promises to pay certain sums, at some future date, with a specified rate of interest. The thousands of millions of dollars thus obtained imposed an enormous debt upon the government. Of this about two-thirds has been paid since the war.

**Salmon Portland Chase,** a native of New Hampshire, was born January 13th, 1808. After being admitted to the bar, he removed to Ohio. In 1849 he was elected to the United States Senate, and in 1855 was chosen governor of Ohio. He was re-elected to the Senate in 1859. In 1861 he was appointed Secretary of the Treasury, and in 1864, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. He died May 7th, 1873. Secretary Chase was, throughout his life, an earnest opponent of slavery. He was originally a Democrat, but he joined the Liberty party at its organization. Later he belonged to the Free-Soil party, and finally became a Republican. His position during the Civil War, at the head of the Treasury Department, was a very difficult one, and he fulfilled the duties with the greatest energy. The National Bank System, which has been tried for thirty years, was adopted in accordance with his advice.

**634. National Banks.** — As an accompaniment of these revenue measures, Congress, in February, 1863, created the National Bank system. By this plan banks could acquire a national charter, could purchase United States bonds, and, by deposit of these bonds in the public treasury, could issue bank-notes. A tax was also placed on the issue of such notes by any bank that did not hold a United States charter, and thus such issues have since that date been limited to the National Banks. The immediate cause for establishing this system was the need of a more efficient method of borrowing money. The system has been continued, and, with slight modifications, is still in use. The notes are perfectly safe, as the bonds in the Treasury more than cover their value, and they are very convenient, as they are of equal value throughout the country.

**Nevada** was settled as late as 1849. From its great silver mines it is called the "Silver State." Mining is almost the only industry of the State, although in certain sections there is a little agriculture. The population is about forty-five thousand.

**635. New States.** — Soon after the beginning of the war, the western part of Virginia separated from the seceding State, and West Virginia was admitted to the Union, June 19th, 1863. The next year, October 31st, 1864, the thirty-sixth State, Nevada, was admitted.

**636. Presidential Election.** — In the campaign of 1864, there were but two parties in the field. The Republican National Convention renominated President Lincoln, chose Andrew Johnson of Tennessee as the candidate for Vice-President, and declared for a continued prosecution of the war, and the abolition of slavery. The Democratic National Convention pronounced the war a failure, insisted that hostilities should cease, and chose as its candidates General George B. McClellan of New Jersey, and George H. Pendleton of Ohio. Twenty-five States cast their votes for presidential electors in November. Two hundred and twelve electors representing twenty-two States voted for Lincoln and Johnson, and twenty-one electors from three States for McClellan and Pendleton.

**West Virginia.** — The western and the eastern sections of the State of Virginia were separated from each other by the Alleghany Mountains. The different climate, soil, and occupations tended to alienate one portion from the other. When Virginia decided to join the Confederacy, the western section remained loyal to the Union. An organization was formed, a constitution was adopted, and the State of West Virginia was admitted to the Union. With a population of three quarters of a million, the "Little Mountain State" is devoting its attention primarily to mining and manufactures.

## CHRONOLOGY.

**1861.** President Lincoln inaugurated, March 4.
Fort Sumter surrendered, April 14.
Call for troops, April 15.
Mob at Baltimore, April 19.
Second Secession, April, May, and June.
Meeting of Congress, July 4.
Battle of Bull Run, July 21.
Battle of Wilson's Creek, August 10.
Capture of Fort Hatteras, August 29.
Battle of Ball's Bluff, October 21.
Capture of Port Royal, November 7.
The Trent affair, November 8.
Battle of Belmont, November.

**1862.** Capture of Fort Henry, February 6.
Capture of Roanoke Island, February 8
Capture of Fort Donelson, February 16.
Battle of Monitor and Merrimac, March 9.
Battle of Shiloh, April 6 and 7.
Capture of Island No. 10, April 7.

**1862.** Capture of Fort Pulaski, April 11.
Capture of New Orleans, April 25.
Capture of Yorktown, May 4.
Battle of Williamsburg, May 5.
Capture of Corinth, May 30.
Battle of Fair Oaks and Seven Pines, May 31, June 1.
Jackson's raid, June.
Seven Days' battle, June 25 to July 1.
Pope's campaign, August.
Second battle of Bull Run, August 29, 30.
Battle of South Mountain, September 14.
Capture of Harper's Ferry, September 15.
Battle of Antietam, September 17.
First Emancipation Proclamation, September 22.
Battle of Fredericksburg, December 13.
Battle of Stone River, December 31 to January 2, 1863.

**1863.** Second Emancipation Proclamation, January 1.
Siege of Suffolk, April 10 to May 3.
Battle of Chancellorsville, May 2, 3.
Battle of Gettysburg, July 1 to 3.
Capture of Vicksburg, July 4.
Capture of Port Hudson, July 9.
Battle of Chickamauga, September 19, 20.
Siege of Knoxville, November and December.
Battles of Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge, November 24, 25.

**1864.** Grant made lieutenant-general, March 3.
Battles of the Wilderness, May 5 to 7.
Siege of Petersburg, June 16 to April 2, 1865.
Battle of Kearsarge and Alabama, June 19.
Battle of Mobile Bay, August 5 to 23.
Capture of Atlanta, September 2.
Battle of Winchester, September 19.
Sherman's march to the sea begins, November 12.
Battle of Franklin, November 30.
Battle of Nashville, December 15, 16.
Capture of Savannah, December 21.

**1865.** Capture of Columbia, February 17.
Capture of Charleston, February 18.
Battle of Five Forks, April 1.
Petersburg captured, April 2.
Fall of Richmond, April 3.
Surrender at Appomattox, April 9.
Assassination of Lincoln, April 14.
Surrender of Johnson, April 26.
Capture of Davis, May 10.

# Blackboard Analysis.

**Presidents**

- Johnson . . . . . 1865–1869
- Grant . . . . . 1869–1877
- Hayes . . . . . 1877–1881
- Garfield and Arthur . 1881–1885
- Cleveland . . . . . 1885–1889
- Harrison . . . . . 1889–1893
- Cleveland . . . . . 1893–

**Matters of Importance**

- Amendments.
- Reconstruction.
- Resumption.
- Silver.
- Tariff.
- Civil Service.
- Australian Ballot.
- Labor.
- Immigration.

**Other Matters**

- Assassinations.
- Disasters.
- Prosperity.
- World's Fairs.
- Letters and Art.
- Nation of To-day.

**New States**

- Nebraska . . . . . 1867
- Colorado . . . . . 1876
- Washington . . . . . 1889
- South Dakota . . . . . 1889
- North Dakota . . . . . 1889
- Montana . . . . . 1889
- Idaho . . . . . 1890
- Wyoming . . . . . 1890
- Utah . . . . . 1896

The Great Eastern laying the Atlantic Cable.

# SECTION XII.

## THE NATION AT PEACE. 1865–1896.

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## CHAPTER LXXVII.

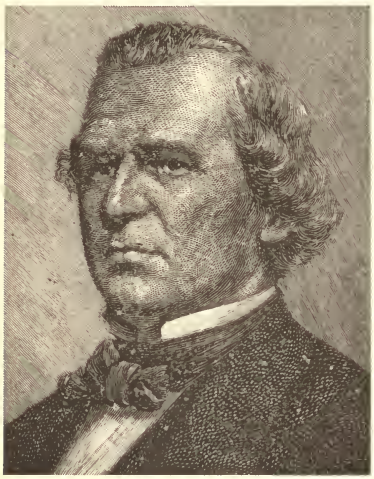
### RECONSTRUCTION.

**637. The End of the War.** — President Johnson, soon after his accession, issued a proclamation that the war was over. Peace, however, brought its difficulties, greater almost than those of war. In North and South new and untried problems presented themselves for solution. Of these questions some were social, some political, and some financial.

**638. The Army.** — What was to be the future of the soldiers composing the two armies? Such vast military forces had never been called into actual service in the history of modern warfare. More than two and a half million men had been enrolled in the Union army during the war and nearly one and a half million in the army of the Confederacy. There were more than a million soldiers in the service of the War Department, in the spring of 1865.

**639. The Review.** — The close of the war found the two great Union armies under Grant and Sherman within a short distance of each other. A great military review was held in Washington, near the end of May. For two days, the column, thirty miles in length, moved along Pennsylvania Avenue past the reviewing stand, where was the President, with members of his Cabinet and of Congress. These one hundred and fifty thousand patriots, many having served for four years, marched through throngs of people, amid enthusiastic expressions of gratitude and thanksgiving. It was a wonderful sight.

**640. Disbanding.** — Within a few months this multitude of soldiers was honorably discharged and returned to their homes. Only a small army of about fifty thousand men remained, to "execute the laws of the Union." Many expressions of fear were heard that the disbandment could not quietly take place. Great anxiety was felt as to the future occupations of these men, who, for so long a time, had known no service but that of war. But the fears proved groundless, as the soldiers returned to their homes and quietly took up their various occupations, as though no war had called them away. This was one of the greatest victories for our free government and its principles.



Andrew Johnson.

**641. The Debt.** — It is impossible to estimate the cost of this great civil war. Enormous taxes had been collected, and an immense debt had been incurred. The revenue of the United States had been nearly a thousand million dollars, while the debt in 1865 was more than three times as much. The nation had been spending two, three, and four million dollars a day during a portion of the war. What was to be the financial future of the country? This was settled as quietly as the other question. The government simply adopted the honorable method of paying the debt as fast as possible. Within twenty years, one billion, two hundred million dollars had been paid, besides the one hundred and fifty million dollars, annually, of accruing interest. The debt has not been lessened as fast since 1886, because the creditors prefer to leave their money in such safe hands, and to receive the interest.

**642. The South.** — This debt was only a portion of the cost of the war. Millions of dollars are being paid every year for pensions. The destruction of property was enormous, and a large proportion of this fell upon the Southern States. In fact, the South was completely ruined at the end of the war. The slave property was gone, there was no money, and manufactures they had never had. Here

OF CALIFORNIA



was a third great question. What was to become of the South? Again this was answered by quiet attention to business. The "New South" is a sufficient reply to the croaks of the pessimists. Had there been no political question and no social questions, the prosperity of the South would have been easily assured.

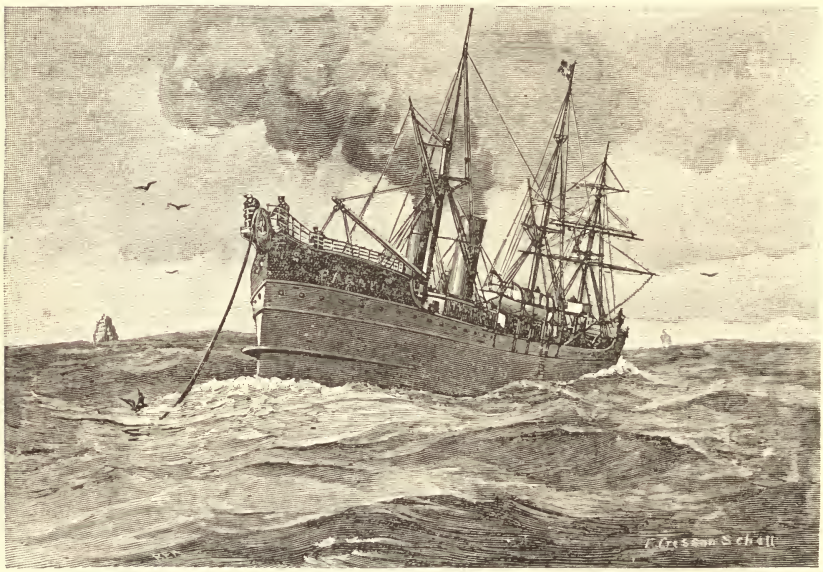
**643. The Results of the War.** — The object of the war must not be forgotten. By it freedom was attained for four million human beings. But this was an incident, and not the reason for the war. The struggle decided the question that the States had not the right to secede from the Union. The nation was to be "one and indivisible," and the United States was to be one great power, and not two parts always at enmity with each other. This, the greatest war in all history, also proved the wonderful strength of the Republic, and placed it in the front rank of the nations of the world.

**Andrew Johnson**, the seventeenth President of the United States, was born in North Carolina in 1808. He was without educational advantages in his earlier life, and is said to have learned to write after his marriage. In spite of these drawbacks, he was elected to Congress in 1843, where he spent ten years. After serving as Governor of Tennessee for four years, he was chosen to represent that State in the Senate. He strongly opposed the secession of his State, and in 1862 was made its military governor, after the capture of Nashville. His activity in this position led to his nomination as the Republican candidate for Vice-President in 1864. After his Presidential term, he remained in active life. He was again chosen to the Senate in 1875, but died July 31st of that year.

**644. Emancipation.** — President Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation (¶ 600) had not freed all the slaves. It did not apply to the States which had permitted slavery, but had not joined the Confederacy. Certain portions of the "seceding" States also were exempted from its application. An amendment was proposed by Congress, and, when ratified by three-fourths of the States, was declared a portion of the Constitution, **December 18th, 1865**. This, the Thirteenth Amendment, forever forbade slavery within the limits of the United States.

**645. Southern States.** — As soon as the Southern States had laid down their arms, the question as to their future political status presented itself. Were these States in or out of the Union? Could they still be reckoned as States, or should they be classed as territories conquered by the Union armies? These questions were never answered, though the method of reconstruction seems to imply the latter. A less theoretical question was, whether the Southern States, under their former leaders, should be allowed to take their old place in the Union.

**646. Freedmen.** — The President's plan was to permit the States to send senators and representatives to Congress, as soon as they repealed their acts of secession and ratified the Thirteenth Amendment. The action taken by the new governments in these reorganized States in regard to the freedmen prevented Congress from accepting this plan. The South had no faith that the negro would be willing to labor except under compulsion, and therefore many of the States passed laws compelling the freedmen to work. The penalties proposed were very severe, and many Northern leaders felt that the condition of the negro would be practically as bad as under slavery.



Laying an Atlantic Cable.

**647. Reconstruction.** — In spite of the President's opposition, Congress passed certain "Acts of Reconstruction," as they were called. These provided that the States should be admitted to Congress only when new governments should be formed, of a character which would pledge safety to the negroes. For this purpose, Congress put the districts under military governors, and voted that freedmen should be allowed to assist in forming the new governments. When these were formed and had ratified the Fourteenth Amendment, the States might be again represented in Congress.

**648. The Fourteenth Amendment.** — In 1866 Congress passed another amendment, which was ratified by three-fourths of the States, and became a part of the Constitution, July 28th, 1868. This amendment consisted of several distinct parts. It declared that no State should deprive any citizen of his rights; that those who, having once sworn to uphold the Constitution of the United States, had taken up arms against it, should be ineligible to office; and that the United States debt should be valid, while that of the Confederacy should never be paid (Appendix B, Amend. xiv.).

**649. Readmission.** — One by one the Southern States were readmitted, as soon as they accepted the plan which Congress had proposed. Tennessee was the first to respond, and its representation in Congress was regained in 1866. By the summer of 1868 six others had become reconstructed. Georgia, Virginia, Texas, and Mississippi refused for a time to make State governments in which the ex-slaves should be the political equals of the former slave-owners, and not until 1870 did they fulfil the conditions for readmission. For nearly ten years these States were without representation in Congress.

**650. The President.** — During all the contest over reconstruction, the quarrel between the President and Congress grew more and more bitter. The President was a War Democrat, and could no more agree with the Republican Congress than President Tyler could with the Whigs. Johnson vetoed many of the important bills sent to him, but, as the Republicans had a two-thirds majority, they passed them over the veto. Finally the quarrel culminated in the "Tenure of Office" act, which forbade the President's removing certain officials without the consent of the Senate.

**651. Impeachment.** — President Johnson believed that the authority for removals was vested in him alone, and that the Senate had no right to interfere. He removed Edwin M. Stanton from his

**Atlantic Cable.** — To Cyrus W. Field is due the honor for the success of the Atlantic Cable. In 1856 a telegraph line was built from New York to Newfoundland, and a company was organized to lay a telegraph cable from Newfoundland to Ireland. After two unsuccessful attempts, in July, 1858, a message was sent by Queen Victoria to President Buchanan, and a reply was received. On September 1st, for some unaccountable reason, the cable ceased to work, but Mr. Field was not dismayed. He formed a new company and, after another failure, finally succeeded. The "Great Eastern" laid the third cable in 1866, and repaired the second, which had parted the year before. Ever since, Europe and America have had instantaneous communication with each other.

position as Secretary of War, and refused to pay attention to the Senate's action in the matter. The House of Representatives voted in February, 1868, to impeach the President, as having broken the laws. The Senate, sitting as a court of impeachment, proceeded to try the President, and came to a vote, May 26th. Thirty-five declared him guilty, and nineteen not guilty. Inasmuch as, by the Constitution, a two-thirds vote of the Senate is necessary for conviction, President Johnson was acquitted. One vote more against him would have resulted in conviction.

**652. Foreign Affairs.** — When the Civil War began, Napoleon III., Emperor of France, determined to make an attempt to revive the power of France on this continent. He sent an army into Mexico and conquered the country in 1863. The next year he made Maximilian, an Austrian, Emperor of Mexico. The United States protested, but was unable to do more at the time. When the war was ended, the protest was changed to a demand that the French troops should be withdrawn from the country. Napoleon complied, but Maximilian refused to abdicate. After the French troops were gone, the Mexicans rose, defeated, and captured the Emperor, who was shot, June 19th, 1867.

**Nebraska,** or "Black Water," was first settled in 1847. The Territory was organized in 1854. Like Kansas, it was a portion of Louisiana, and made famous by the Kansas-Nebraska Bill. The size of the Territory was twice reduced until, at present, it is purely a prairie State. The building of railroads led immigrants into this fertile Territory. Cereals and fruits form the basis of its agriculture and its soil is unusually adapted to stock-raising. The population is a little over a million.

The same year, a purchase of territory was made by the United States. Russia was only too glad to dispose of her possessions in North America, and sold Alaska for the sum of seven million two hundred thousand dollars. This purchase added nearly six hundred thousand to the three million square miles of area previously possessed. The products of Alaska in lumber, fish, and furs have more than repaid its cost. Rich gold discoveries were made along the Yukon, at Circle City and in the Klondike region, in 1896 and 1897.

**653. Domestic Affairs.** — In 1866, an organization of Irish-Americans, called Fenians, thought to aid their native country by fighting the English in Canada. Several hundred crossed the line from Buffalo, and others from St. Albans, Vermont, but the disturbance was soon quieted by the prompt action of the President, who issued a proclamation condemning the movement.

The same year saw the first successful laying of the Atlantic cable. Several attempts had been made previous to this time, but not until **July 27th, 1866**, was permanent communication opened under the ocean. This and subsequent ocean cables have done much to bring the ends of the earth nearer, and "make the world akin."

Nebraska, the thirty-seventh State, was admitted to the Union, March 1st, 1867.

**654. Presidential Election.** — The question of reconstruction was the great issue before the people in 1868. The Republicans nominated for President the great general, Ulysses S. Grant, and associated with him Schuyler Colfax of Indiana. The Democratic candidate was Horatio Seymour, ex-Governor of New York. Three States were not allowed to participate in this election, and but 294 electoral votes were cast. Of these, Grant and Colfax received 214, and were declared elected.

## CHAPTER LXXVIII.

### GRANT'S ADMINISTRATIONS.

**655. The Treaty of Washington.** — Several grounds of controversy had arisen between the United States and Great Britain during the ten years previous to 1870. After some futile attempts to settle these difficulties, a commission consisting of five men to represent England, and five to present the claims of the United States, met at Washington, in **1871**. The treaty which was finally signed, **May 8th,** referred all the matters in dispute to arbitration. This method of settlement proved vastly superior to the more common method of issuing a declaration of war.

**656. The "Alabama" Claims.** — In 1862 certain vessels were fitted out in England to aid the Confederacy in its war with the United States. Great Britain had declared neutrality in the contest, and the United States claimed that she should have prevented the sailing of these vessels, and that she was partially responsible for the evils which had resulted. Many citizens brought suits for damages done by the

"Alabama," one of these vessels, and the United States took up the cause of the "Alabama" claims. By the Treaty of Washington, these claims were left to a commission of five men, — one each to be appointed by Great Britain, the United States, Switzerland, Italy, and Brazil. This commission met in Geneva, in September, **1872**, and, by the so-called "Genevan Awards," Great Britain paid fifteen and a half million dollars for the injuries resulting from her remissness in allowing the "Alabama" to sail.

General Ulysses Simpson Grant, the eighteenth President of the United States, was born in Ohio, April 27th, 1822, and died at Mount McGregor, New York, July 23d, 1885. He was graduated from West Point in 1843, and served in the Mexican War; first under General Taylor, and afterwards under General Scott. He was not a politician, but preferred the Republican party, because of his strong unionist sentiments. He entered the Union army at the outset of the war, and was at once made brigadier-general. His capture of Fort Donelson won for him a major-generalship. In 1864 he was made lieutenant-general, a grade which had been previously held only by Washington and Scott. In 1866 he was raised to the rank of general. President Grant has been usually considered one of the greatest generals the world has ever seen. "His deeds as general, his statesmanship as President, and his example as an American citizen, have raised his country to a still higher position in the regard of the civilized world."

**657. Other Disputes.** — The Treaty of Washington made the Emperor of Germany the arbitrator of the dispute as to the Northwest boundary. Emperor William decided that the channel, spoken of in the Treaty of 1846 (¶ 485), was the one to the west of the San Juan Island in Puget Sound, thus conceding that island to the United States, as she had claimed. For the first time, the entire boundary of the United States was without dispute.

Another arbitration commission investigated the disputes between Canadian and American fishermen. This difficulty was settled by the payment of five and a half million dollars by the United States. Some difficulties as to the fisheries were not settled, however, and have not been up to the present time (1896).

**658. The Indians.** — What to do with the Indians has been a troublesome question ever since the white man came to this continent. During the Civil War Minnesota was invaded by the Sioux to avenge injuries. Many skirmishes occurred in Dakota and Montana. Fetterman with eighty men was surprised and massacred in 1866. President Grant did not find the matter any easier to settle than had his predecessors. In 1872 the Modocs, of Southern Oregon, refused to be moved from one reservation to another, and a year's hard fighting was necessary before the Modoc War was ended. In **1876**

Sitting Bull, a chief of the Sioux Indians, also objected to a removal from the Black Hills, and the Sioux War followed. The Indians were finally conquered, but not until after an incident occurred which sent a feeling of horror over the country. General Custer met, at Big Horn, a band of the Sioux, which was ten times as large as his own force. Custer and his entire regiment were killed in the attack, the Indians allowing them no quarter whatever.

**659. Railroads.** — During the four years from 1868 to 1872, thousands of miles of railways were built within the United States. In **1869** the first railroad across the continent was completed. May

Custer's Last Fight. (Copyright, 1896, by Silver, Burdett & Company.)

10th, the Union Pacific Railroad, more than one thousand miles long, was joined to the Central Pacific, nearly nine hundred miles in length, thus making a continuous line from New York to San Francisco, a distance of three thousand three hundred miles. The government gave great aid to these railroads, especially by presenting to them vast stretches of land, which they could sell to pioneers. Since then the Northern Pacific, the Southern Pacific, the Oregon Short Line, the Santa Fé, and the Great Northern railroads have been completed to the Pacific coast.

**660. The Results.** — In many respects, the first Pacific railroad far exceeded the expectations and hopes of its promoters. The great saving of time, whereby it takes no longer to travel from New York to San Francisco than it did from New York to Boston a hundred years ago, has caused a revolution in business. The objection made, when Oregon was admitted (¶ 530), that a representative from that State would need to spend all his time travelling to and from Congress, causes only amusement to-day. The benefits to commerce resulting from these roads are incalculable, as is also the effect that they had in promoting the rapid growth of the West. August 1st, 1876, the "Centennial State," Colorado, was admitted to the Union.

**Colorado.** — The first certainly-known settlement in the "Centennial State" was in 1859, upon the discovery of gold near the present site of Denver. A territorial government was provided, in 1861, for the many immigrants, who hoped to find a second California. Besides its valuable mining industries, Colorado has great cattle-ranches, and manufactures are springing up throughout the State. Colorado is making vast strides, having more than doubled its population in the past ten years, until it has now nearly half a million.

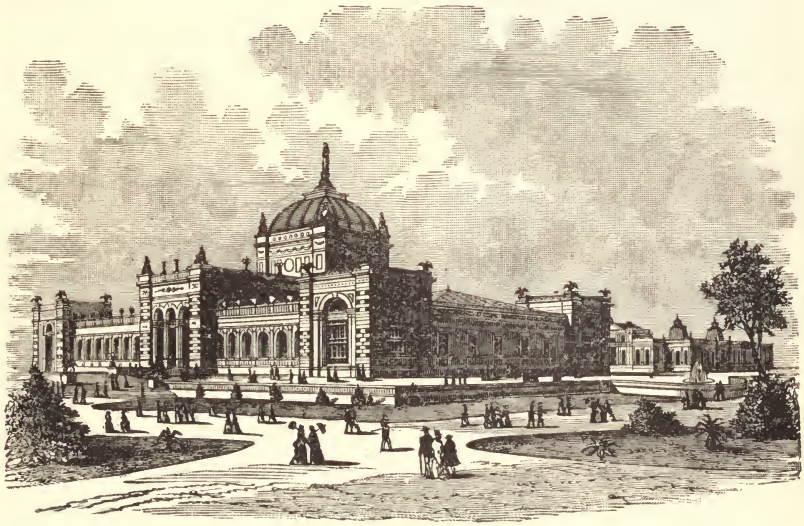
**661. Prosperity.** — These four years were prosperous in all sections of the country. Gold and silver mines added vastly to the wealth of the nation, petroleum and coal were obtained in greater quantities, wheat fields yielded their grains as never before, manufactures went on apace, population made vast strides, and soon the country had regained the position held before the war, and had gone far beyond it.

**662. Fires.** — The prosperous condition is well shown by the way in which cities recovered from severe losses by fire. In October, 1871, a conflagration broke out in Chicago, which lasted two days and destroyed two hundred million dollars' worth of property. In November, 1872, Boston suffered a loss of seventy-five million dollars by a fire covering sixty acres of business blocks. The whole country immediately responded to the calls for aid from the suffering people, millions of dollars being quickly subscribed. Each city began at once to rebuild, and, in a remarkably short time, all vestiges of the fire had disappeared, and the magnificent new buildings seemed to prove that the disaster was a blessing rather than a curse.

**663. The Centennial.** — The hundredth anniversary of the signing of the Declaration of Independence was celebrated by a World's Fair, at Philadelphia. The Centennial Exhibition, which lasted

from **May** until **November, 1876**, far surpassed anything of its kind previously held. The Main Exhibition Hall covered twenty acres, and hundreds of other buildings were filled with proofs of the prosperity of the United States and of other nations. The nearly ten million visitors to this exhibition of the world's industries received an education which could be obtained in no other way. The fair also resulted in an increased attention paid to inventions and labor-saving devices, as shown by the large number of patents granted during the next few years.

**664. The Panic.** — In connection with the great prosperity of the country there was a large degree of speculation. More railroads were built than the country needed or could pay for. Millions of



Memorial Hall.

dollars were spent upon investments which could not be productive for a long time. As in 1837 and in 1857, so in 1873 there came a disturbance in all business circles. This lasted for several years, and not until 1880 did the country again feel a full tide of prosperity.

**665. Political Scandals.** — The period of speculation was accompanied by corruption among certain officials of the government. A ring was formed by the whiskey distillers and certain officers of the

Internal Revenue Department, whereby the government was defrauded of money, which went into the pockets of the ring. Besides the Whiskey Ring, certain Indian agents also conspired to defraud the government as well as the Indians. An investigation showed that members of Congress had received bribes in the form of stocks in the Credit Mobilier, — a company which was building the Pacific Railroad, and hoped to obtain certain favors from Congress. Political rings had grown up in the larger cities, which carried on the government in a corrupt manner. As the exposures of these scandals came in connection with the great panic, this was a gloomy period for those who were most anxious for the welfare of the country.

Horace Greeley.

**666. Grant re-elected.** — Although the President was not implicated in any of these scandals, strong opposition was made to his renomination by the Republicans. A branch of the party seceded, called themselves Liberal Republicans, and nominated Horace Greeley, editor of the "New York Tribune," as their candidate for the Presidency. The Democrats were not strong at the time, and ratified the nomination of this lifelong Republican. General Grant was re-elected, however, receiving two hundred and eighty-six out of the three hundred and forty-nine votes cast. Henry Wilson of Massachusetts was elected Vice-President.

**667. The Fifteenth Amendment.** — In 1870 the third of the amendments which resulted from the war received a three-fourths vote of the States, and became a part of the Constitution. This Fifteenth Amendment provided that the right to vote in any State should not be denied "on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude." In spite of the dense ignorance of the freedmen, negro suffrage was made the law of the country. Though they owned little land and but a small amount of property, they had an equal power in the levying of taxes.

**668. The Effect in the South.** — The negroes naturally mistrusted their former masters and voted against them. Those persons who came from the North and sided with the negroes were called "Carpet-Baggers," because they were said to have brought nothing into the South except what they had in their carpet-bags. The Southerners who were willing to vote with the negroes were decried by the title "Scalawags." Disorder and almost warfare sprang up, both sides being doubtless to blame. An organization called the Ku Klux Klan was formed, with the avowed purpose of depriving the negroes of the ballot, and thereby saving the States, as they said. from ruin. This Klan caused a reign of terror to ensue, and Federal troops were sent into the South in order to protect the ballot-box and the negroes in their right to vote.

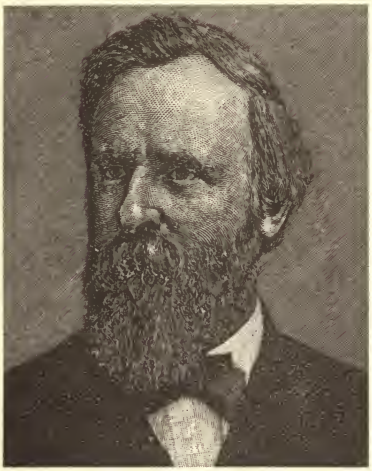
**669. Presidential Election.** — The political scandals, the panic and the troubles in the South, caused a reaction against the party in power. In 1876 the Republicans nominated Governor R. B. Hayes of Ohio, and W. A. Wheeler of New York. The Democratic candidates were Samuel J. Tilden of New York, and T. A. Hendricks of Indiana (¶ 673). There was no vital issue between the two parties, and the election proved very close. For weeks after the voting of the people, the country was in suspense as to the result. It was found that two sets of electors had voted in certain Southern States.

**670. An Electoral Commission.** — In Florida and in Louisiana the largest number of votes were returned for the Democratic candidates. In each, the Returning Board, whose duty it was to count the votes, decided that there had been errors in certain districts. They therefore refused to count certain votes, which resulted in their declaring the election of the Republican electors. The Republican Senate and the Democratic House of Representatives could not agree as to which electors should be considered duly chosen. After a long controversy, it was decided by law to leave the matter to a commission, consisting of five Senators, five members of the House, and five Justices of the Supreme Court. This Electoral Commission, after careful consideration, decided in favor of Hayes and Wheeler, and they were declared elected by a vote of 185 to 184 for Tilden and Hendricks.

# CHAPTER LXXIX.

## POLITICAL PARTIES AND PUBLIC QUESTIONS.

**671. Parties.** — The years that have passed since President Hayes was inaugurated, March 5th, **1877**, have, on the whole, been years of prosperity. No great issues have held the attention of the people, and the political conditions have been in a state of marked and constant change. The Republicans held the Presidency and both branches of Congress from 1889 to 1891; and in 1893 the Democratic party obtained possession of the entire government. At no other period since 1877 has either party had complete control of the government, as the two branches of Congress have been in the hands of different parties.



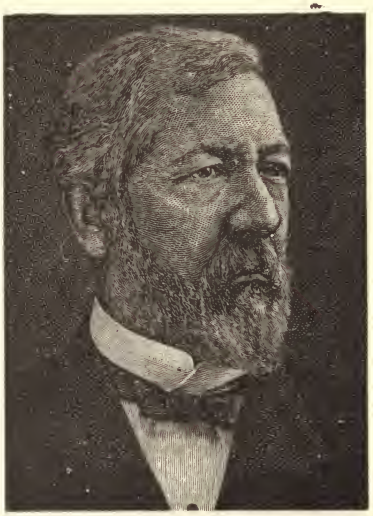
Rutherford Burchard Hayes.

**672. The Election of 1880.** — Three parties were in the field in 1880. The Greenback party nominated J. B. Weaver of Iowa, and B. J. Chambers of Texas, and declared for a larger issue of "paper money" (¶ 599) by the government. The Democratic candidates were General W. S. Hancock of New York, and W. H. English of Indiana. The Republicans put in nomination General James A. Garfield of Ohio, and Chester A. Arthur of New York. After a spirited campaign, the electors gave 214 votes for Garfield and Arthur, and 155 for the Democratic candidates.

**Rutherford Burchard Hayes,** born October 4th, 1822, was admitted to the Ohio bar in 1845. At the beginning of the war he went as a volunteer, with the rank of major. He served in the field throughout the war, and was made brigadier-general on account of his gallantry. He represented his State at Washington, and was twice the Republican Governor of Ohio. Since his Presidency, Mr. Hayes lived in retirement, and was especially interested in philanthropic work. He died January 17th, 1893.

**673. The Election of 1884.** — The Democrats adopted as their campaign cry in 1884 "reduction of national expenditures," and placed

Grover Cleveland of New York and Thomas A. Hendricks of Indiana at the head of their ticket. In opposition, the Republican candidates were James G. Blaine of Maine, and General John A. Logan of Illinois. The Prohibitionists and the Greenback party had tickets in the field, whose effect was to withdraw votes from the two leading candidates. Another defection from the Republican ranks took place, and the Independents, or "Mugwumps," as they were called, carried enough votes to elect the Democratic candidates, 219 to 182. New York, with its 36 votes, was the deciding factor. March 4th, 1885, Grover Cleveland became the first Democratic President since 1861.

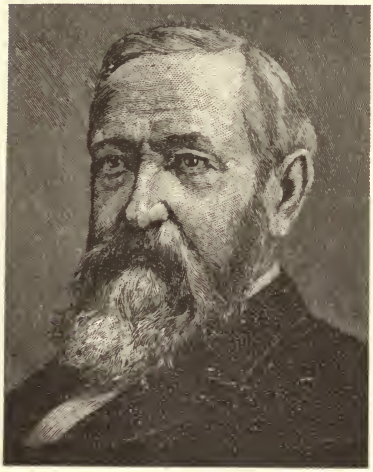


James Gillespie Blaine.

**674. The Election of 1888.** — The next Presidential campaign turned on the question of the tariff. The people were called upon to decide between the Republicans, who desired a continuance of the principle of high protective duties, and the Democrats, who demanded a reduction of the tariff. President Cleveland was a candidate for re-election, and with him was associated Allen G. Thurman of Ohio. Mr. Blaine withdrew from the contest, and the Republicans nominated General Benjamin Harrison of Indiana, and Levi P. Morton of New York, who were elected by a vote of 233 to 168 for the Democratic candidates. Several other minor parties were in the field, but their votes did not materially affect the result. New York again determined the election, as President Cleveland would have been re-elected if he had carried that State.

**James Gillespie Blaine**, one of the best known of the later statesmen, was born in Pennsylvania, January 31st, 1830. At the age of twenty-three he took charge of the "Kennebec Journal," published at Augusta, Maine. He entered Congress in 1862, and for twenty years was a leader of the Republicans. For six years he held the position of Speaker of the House of Representatives. An unsuccessful candidate for the Republican nomination to the Presidency in 1876, and again in 1880, he became President Garfield's Secretary of State. In 1884 he received the nomination, but was defeated by Mr. Cleveland. He declined to be a candidate in 1888, and became President Harrison's Secretary of State. He was an ardent believer in the policy of reciprocity. Mr. Blaine died January 27th, 1893.

**675. The Election of 1892.** — As far as the leading parties were concerned, the campaign of 1892 was like that of 1888. President Harrison and Whitelaw Reid of New York were opposed by ex-President Cleveland and Adlai E. Stevenson of Illinois. A new party had been formed just before this election, called the "People's Party," which nominated General Weaver as its candidate. The result of the campaign was strongly against the Republicans. President Cleveland received 277 electoral votes to 145 for President Harrison, while the remaining 22 of the 444 electors voted for the People's Party candidate. The Democrats retained a large majority in the House of Representatives and gained the Senate. For the first time in more than thirty years, the Democratic party had complete control of the government.



Benjamin Harrison.

**676. The Election of 1896.** — Four years later, the currency question exceeded in importance the tariff issue. The Republican party nominated William McKinley of Ohio (¶ 682) and Garrett A. Hobart of New Jersey, on a platform advocating protection and international bimetallism. The Democrats declared for "the free and unlimited coinage of silver" (¶ 679), and chose as standard-bearers William J. Bryan of Nebraska and Arthur Sewall of Maine. The "Silver Republicans" ratified the Democratic ticket, and the Populists nominated Mr. Bryan, associating with him Thomas E. Watson of Georgia. A wing of the Democratic party opposed free silver, and nominated General John M. Palmer of Illinois, and General Simon B. Buckner of Kentucky. The election occurred November 3d, 1896, and resulted in the choice of 271 electors for McKinley, and 176 for Bryan.

**Benjamin Harrison,** the only living ex-President (1896), was born in Ohio, August 20th, 1833. Admitted to the bar of Indiana in 1854, Mr. Harrison practised law until 1862, when he formed a regiment of volunteers and joined the army of the Union. He was made brigadier-general in 1865, and then returned to his profession. In 1886 General Harrison was chosen United States Senator, and became the Republican leader of Indiana. He was elected to the Presidency in 1888, and failed of a re-election in 1892.

**677. New Questions.** — In 1877 the old issues had been settled and the country was ready to consider other subjects. Among these new questions the most important were, — the position of silver as money, tariff duties, reform of the civil service and of the ballot, control of the railroads, and labor disputes. None of these important matters have been fully settled, but, in each, steps have been taken toward the ultimate decision.

**678. Specie Payments.** — The "paper money" (¶ 599), which had been issued during the war, steadily increased in value after peace was declared and the government began to pay the debt. January 1st, 1879, John Sherman, the Secretary of the Treasury, succeeded in bringing about the "resumption of specie payments." The government stood ready to pay gold or silver for any of the "Greenbacks" which the people wished to bring to it. The effect of resumption was to make the government notes of equal value with gold or silver, and, because of its greater convenience, paper money has been commonly preferred to specie. At about the same time, the Secretary was able to refund a large portion of the debt, *i. e.* borrow money at a lower rate of interest, in order to pay off the notes carrying a higher rate. This resulted in the saving of millions of dollars to the United States Treasury.

**679. Silver.** — Both gold and silver have been used as money by the United States during most of its history. Since the discovery of silver in our western territory, its value, as compared with gold, has greatly declined. For this reason, a law was passed, in 1873, that gold alone should be coined as money. An opposition to this "demonetization" of silver sprang up, especially in the Western and Southern States, and in 1878 an act was passed to resume the coinage of silver dollars, to the extent of at least $2,000,000 a month. Since that time, the issue has been a live one between the "hard money" men, who believe that gold should be the only standard of exchange, and those who desire also an equal "free coinage" of the other metal. The "Bland Silver Bill" of 1878 was followed by the "Sherman Silver Bill" of 1890. This was repealed by Congress, at a special session in 1893, called by President Cleveland for the purpose. Since 1893, however, the demand for free silver has continued, and the currency question still divides public opinion.

**680. The Gold Reserve.** — By the bank act of July 12, 1882, it was provided that, if the gold coin and bullion in the Treasury reserved for the redemption of greenbacks should fall below one hundred million dollars, gold certificates should no longer be issued. During the years 1894 to 1896, there was a constant drain upon the treasury of the United States. This diminished the quantity of gold on hand to such an extent that it was reduced below the required amount on four separate occasions during that period. It became necessary for the government to borrow gold, which was done in the usual manner, by issuing bonds. On the fourth occasion, the bond issue was thrown open to popular bids. The amount asked for was one hundred million dollars, and nearly six times that amount was offered by the people, on the appointed day in February, 1896. This was a strong indication of the remarkable prosperity of the United States, as well as a proof of the confidence of the people in the stability of the government.

Grover Cleveland.

**681. The Tariff of 1883.** — When the government could no longer pay off the remainder of its debt (¶ 641), it was found that its revenue was larger than was necessary. In 1882 a tariff commission was appointed which travelled throughout the country and inspected the working of the so-called "war duties." Congress made slight reductions in the tariff, in accordance with the recommendations of the commission. Nearly all of the Republican members of Congress were protectionists, as was also a strong wing of the Democratic party.

**Grover Cleveland,** a native of New Jersey, was born March 18th, 1837. In 1881 he was elected Mayor of Buffalo, New York. He was chosen by the Democratic party as their candidate for Governor in 1882, and was elected by an overwhelming majority. This fact, together with the political position of the "Empire State," made him the "logical candidate" for the Presidency. Elected in 1884, he was defeated for re-election in 1888, but was again elected in 1892.

**682. Tariff Reform.** — President Cleveland, in his annual message to Congress, December, 1887, recommended a radical reform in the

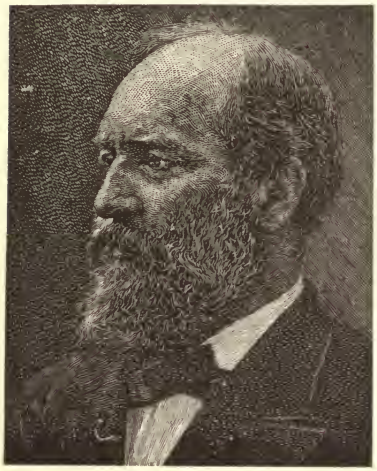
tariff, with special reference to increasing the number of articles to be put upon the "free list." His party had not the control of Congress, however, and the question of protection or tariff reform entered into the campaign of 1888. When the Republicans gained the supremacy, a new tariff measure was passed in 1890, which has been called the "McKinley Bill," from its maker, William McKinley, the chairman of the Ways and Means Committee of the House of Representatives. This reduced the revenue very considerably, though it increased the duties upon many articles.

**683. Later Tariffs.** — In 1893 the Democrats obtained a majority in both branches of Congress, and, in August, 1894, a new tariff schedule was enacted, without the signature of President Cleveland. This measure was satisfactory neither to the tariff reformers nor to the protectionists. Immediately after his inauguration, President McKinley called a special session of Congress to provide for an increase of revenue. After a four months' session, Congress passed the so-called "Dingley Bill," which received the President's signature, July 24, 1897. This tariff act was a distinctly protective measure, with rates, on the whole, lower than those of the tariff of 1890, but higher than those provided by the act of 1894.

**684. Reciprocity.** — One of the new features of the tariff of 1890 was that of "reciprocity." By this act the President was empowered to make treaties with those foreign nations that desired to accept the reciprocity idea. By these treaties the United States agreed to make certain reductions in the duties upon goods imported from those nations, on condition that a similar change would be made in return. The tariff law of 1894 abrogated all reciprocity treaties; but the act of 1897 restored to the President the power to make new ones, with certain restrictions as to time and manner.

**685. President Garfield.** — The first months of President Garfield's term were rendered unpleasant by the troubles arising from appointments to office. Since 1829 it has been the custom for every President to make wholesale removals, and to fill the positions with new men. This always imposes upon the President and his cabinet a large amount of unnecessary labor. The "Spoils System" has also been injurious to the efficiency of the government, by removing tried officials and replacing them with inexperienced men.

**686. Assassination.** — July 2d, 1881, President Garfield was shot by a disappointed office-seeker, named Guiteau. The president suffered for weeks, and died September 19th. The assassin was tried, convicted, and hanged. This sad event aroused the attention of the country more fully to the evils of the Federal office system, and in 1883 Congress acceded to the popular demand and passed the "Pendleton Civil Service Bill."



James Abram Garfield.

**687. Civil Service Reform.** — The Constitution gives the appointing power to the President, so that the value of the Civil Service Act depends upon the willingness of the President to abide by its spirit. By it he is permitted to establish a commission, whose duty it is to examine applicants for office in the civil service, and to recommend those who are qualified for the positions. The President may then appoint, if he desires, from this number. Presidents Arthur, Cleveland, and Harrison have availed themselves of this act, and the number of positions filled from the approved list has been gradually increased, until, by an order of May 6th, 1896, all the 85,000 government employees, except about 800, are chosen according to their qualifications.

**688. Presidential Succession.** — President Garfield's death called attention to another danger, which never before had been so fully realized. If Vice-President Arthur had been unable to serve, there would have been no person qualified to succeed to the duties of the President. In 1886 a Presidential Succession Bill was passed, whereby, in case of the death or disability of both President and Vice-President, the duties of the office shall be performed by the Secretary of State, and, if necessary, then by the other members of the Cabinet in regular order. The next year, a Presidential Election Bill was enacted, which provided a method for counting the electoral votes. This was intended to prevent, if possible, another disputed election, like that of 1876 (¶ 670).

**689. The Australian Ballot.** — Among the various reforms in political matters, one of the most valuable has been the Australian ballot. The purpose of this system is to prevent the bribing of voters, and to allow them to cast their ballots without intimidation. As the State prints the ballot, the candidates are not obliged to meet this expense. All but three of the States have adopted the system, though with many important differences. Other reforms in the method of conducting elections have been attempted in certain States, and the present outlook for purer politics is bright.

**James Abram Garfield,** the twentieth President, was born in Ohio, November 19th, 1831. In 1856 he was made Professor of Latin and Greek in Hiram College, and in 1858 its president. He was elected a State senator at the early age of twenty-eight, in 1859, but two years later resigned to enter the army as colonel. He was made major-general in 1863, and soon after entered the House of Representatives. He remained here until 1880, when he was chosen United States Senator, and almost immediately President. President Garfield died September 19th, 1881, after weeks of struggle between life and death, and was succeeded by Vice-President Arthur.

**Chester Alan Arthur** was born at Fairfield, Vermont, October 5th, 1830. He was, like President Garfield, a school-teacher, but became a lawyer in 1853. Originally a Whig, he became a Republican in 1856, and was an ardent Unionist in 1861. He was a candidate for renomination in 1884, but was unsuccessful. He died November 18th, 1886.

**690. Interstate Commerce.** — Another important law was enacted by Congress in 1887. The Interstate Commerce Act provided for a commission which should oversee all railroads which extend from one State into another. Congress had this right, as the Constitution placed the commerce between the States in the hands of the Federal government. The purpose of this bill was to provide for uniform passenger fares and freight charges.

**691. Labor Troubles.** — As the wealth of the nation has increased, hostility has grown up between employers and laborers. Demands are frequently made for higher wages and shorter hours of labor. These demands are often just, but sometimes the laborer does not understand the conditions, and the employer is unable to grant the requests. In 1879 an organization was formed called the "Knights of Labor;" and more recently the "American Federation of Labor" and the "American Railway Union," have been established. The purpose of such unions is to give more weight to the demands of laborers by enabling them to make a more united stand.

**692. Strikes.** — The most common weapon used in this struggle has been the "strike." In 1877 many railroad employees left work; and for two weeks few, if any, trains were run on many roads. Disturbances occurred in various cities, the riot in Pittsburg being

the most disastrous. In that city nearly a hundred lives were lost, and millions of dollars' worth of property was destroyed. Among other weapons employed in these labor troubles are the "black list" and the "boycott." The former is used by the employer, and a laborer who has the misfortune to get upon that list finds it hard to obtain work anywhere. The latter is used by the laborers, and

Manufactures and Liberal Arts Building, World's Columbian Exposition, Chicago, Ill., 1893.

consists in an agreement to have no dealings with certain employers, especially if they have used the black list.

**693. The Pullman Boycott.** — A strike among the employees of the Pullman Palace Car Company led to a boycott of the parlor cars by the American Railway Union, in June, 1894. Twenty railroads were "tied up," and perhaps forty thousand employees left work. The strike extended from Ohio to California. Riots ensued, several of which were quelled only by the employment of the United States troops as well as the militia to assist the local police. The strike was unsuccessful; the leaders were arrested for obstructing the

United States mail, and sentenced to fine and imprisonment. President Cleveland appointed a special committee to investigate the strike, which committee recommended a permanent United States strike commission.

**694. Anarchists.** — In 1886 there appeared a long list of strikes, which culminated in Chicago, when nearly fifty thousand persons abandoned their employments until their demands were granted. In May, at a labor demonstration in that city, a bomb was thrown among a number of policemen, killing seven and wounding scores of others. This was the work of Anarchists, — men who desired the overthrow of all government. The workingmen in all parts of the country denounced the outrage, and the authorities of Illinois tried and hanged four of the guilty men.

**Washington** is the most populous of the seven new States. The territorial government of Washington was established in 1853. For the first thirty years the growth was slow, but during the past twelve years it has been very rapid. The population is now more than four hundred thousand, being greater than that of any one of twelve of its sister States. Its location, climate, soil, and other natural advantages fit it for the successful prosecution of a large number of industries.

**695. Immigration.** — One of the greatest complaints made by laborers has been that cheap labor has come in from foreign countries. In certain sections the greatest opposition has been to the immigration of the Chinese. It has been claimed that they not only live upon wages that would not support other laborers, but do not intend to remain longer than to obtain a small amount of money which will be a fortune when they return to China. Various laws have been passed for the purpose of entirely stopping the immigration of any Chinese workmen. The immigration of other laborers has been restricted by recent laws, and an agitation is being made to check further the entrance of cheap labor (¶ 718).

**Montana,** one of the youngest States, is the third largest in area. It was acquired from France as a portion of the Louisiana purchase. It was explored by Lewis and Clark in 1804-5. It was organized as a Territory in 1864. The principal industries of Montana are mining and stock-raising. Its gain in population has been marked during the last twelve years. It has now nearly two hundred thousand inhabitants.

**696. World's Columbian Exposition.** — The four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America by Columbus was fittingly celebrated by a Naval Parade of all nations in New York Harbor, October 12th, 1892, and by a World's Fair in Chicago, the grounds

and buildings of which were dedicated **October 21st, 1892**. The fair was opened May 1st, 1893, with an address by President Cleveland, and was continued six months. This exposition far exceeded that of Philadelphia in 1876 (¶ 663), in the beauty of its buildings and grounds, in the extensiveness of the exhibits, and in the multitude of its visitors. The more intimate knowledge of other peoples received by those who thronged to the fair was one of its most valuable features.

**Dakota.** — The great agricultural regions west of Minnesota were formed into the Territory of Dakota in 1861. This Territory belonged to the province of Louisiana, and until 1868 included what was then made into the Territory of Wyoming. Dakota was divided in 1889, and the two States of North and South Dakota were admitted, with populations respectively of nearly two and more than three hundred thousand.

**697. Disasters.** — An epidemic of yellow fever spread through the Southern States in 1878, being especially destructive in New Orleans. More than fifteen thousand people died before the autumnal frosts had killed the germs of the disease.

In 1882 the Mississippi River overflowed its banks and rendered many thousands homeless, besides destroying much valuable property.

In 1886 an earthquake occurred in Charleston, South Carolina, which overthrew scores of buildings and killed many persons. For months lesser shocks continued, while the people were in daily terror, not knowing what would be the outcome.

In 1889 a reservoir embankment gave way in Conemaugh Valley, Pennsylvania. The vast flood of waters struck the city of Johnstown, without warning, and thousands lost their lives.

**Wyoming** has, next to Nevada, the smallest population of the forty-five States, but it had nearly three times as great a population in 1890 as in 1880. It now numbers a little less than one hundred thousand people.

In all these cases the whole nation at once responded with aid. The alacrity with which Northern cities sent food and assistance to the Mississippi and Charleston sufferers was beneficial in softening the irritation still remaining from the war.

**698. Other Legislation.** — Only a few of the many legislative acts that have been passed during the administrations of Presidents Hayes, Garfield, Arthur, Cleveland, and Harrison can be mentioned here, and those but briefly.

The Edmunds Anti-Polygamy Law, passed in 1882, has been

very effective in putting down polygamy in the territories. The Mormons have accepted the situation, and have declared that polygamy is no longer a doctrine of the church.

The next year Congress gave to the country a great boon by providing cheap postage. The cost of sending a letter to any point in the country was reduced from three to two cents. In 1885 the postage was made still cheaper by allowing an ounce to go for one stamp, in place of a half-ounce as before.

**Idaho** was originally a part of Oregon, and was made a separate Territory in 1863. The State is but just beginning its development, but it has abundant resources for agricultural, grazing, and mining industries. Its population is more than a hundred thousand.

Other questions have been recently prominent before the country. The construction of a canal by the government, across the narrow portion of the continent, at Nicaragua, is desired by many merchants. A new navy has been begun and an effort is being made to have the work continued.

**699. New States.** — Four new States were admitted to the Union in November, 1889, North and South Dakota, Montana and Washington. The next July, Idaho and Wyoming were added to the number. January 4th, 1896, President Cleveland proclaimed the admission of Utah as the forty-fifth State. A new Territory was formed in 1889, by uniting a portion of the Indian Territory with the public lands. This new Territory, Oklahoma, as well as New Mexico and Arizona, are knocking at the doors of Congress. When these are admitted, the unorganized Indian and Alaska Territories, and the District of Columbia, will alone remain without state governments.

**Utah,** a portion of the Mexican purchase of 1848, was made a Territory by the Compromise of 1850. It had been settled by the Mormons as early as 1847. Its admission to the Union was delayed until 1896, because of opposition to the Mormon principle of polygamy. The Mormon Church abolished polygamy in 1890. The chief industries are mining and agriculture. The population is about a quarter of a million.

**700. Hawaii.** — January 16th, 1893, Queen Liliuokalani, of the Sandwich Islands, was deposed, and a republic was established, which asked for annexation to the United States. Territory may be added to the United States in two ways: — (1) by treaty made by the President with the consent of the Senate, and (2) by act of Congress, approved by the President. The latter course was followed in the annexation of the Hawaiian Islands, which was finally consummated in July, 1898.

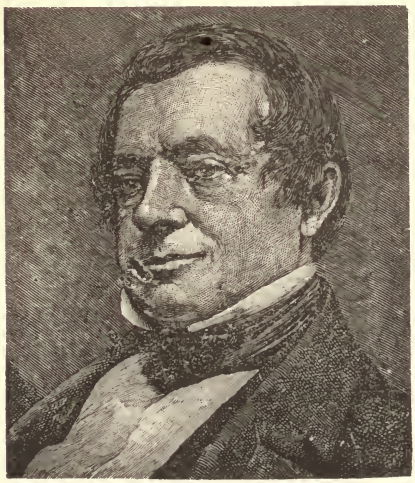
**701. Venezuela.** — December 17th, 1895, President Cleveland sent a message to Congress, calling attention to the dispute over the boundary line between Venezuela and British Guiana, and re-affirming the Monroe doctrine (¶ 449). In accordance with a law passed by Congress, a commission was appointed to look into the matter and to ascertain the true boundary line. As a result, partly, of the investigations of this commission, Great Britain and the United States, in November, 1896, signed an agreement, submitting nearly all the disputed points to a tribunal, to consist of five jurists, two to be appointed by the United States, two by Great Britain, and the fifth to be selected by the four. Venezuela accepted the proposed terms, and thus an international difficulty, which seemed to threaten war between two great nations, was quietly settled by arbitration.

[See Appendix K, page 418 a.]

## CHAPTER LXXX.

### LETTERS AND ART.

**702. Colonial Period.** — The colonial period was marked by the publication of but few books, and these were chiefly of a theological character. This was a new country, and the people were too busy to find time for reading, much less for writing. Consequently the ministers were almost the only persons who had time or inclination for such matters, and they naturally wrote upon the subjects which interested them most.



Washington Irving.

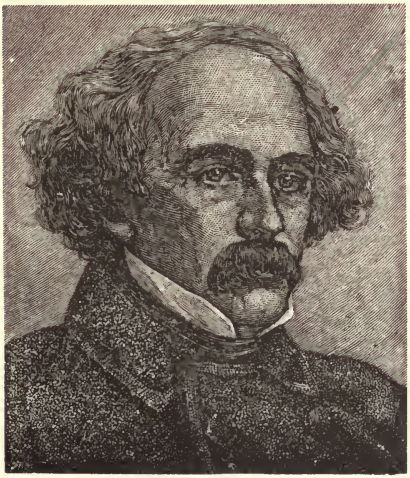
**703. The Revolution.** — The Revolution, with its excitement and radical changes, produced a remarkable group of orators and statesmen, who have left a most valuable collection of letters and writings. The state papers of Washington, Adams, Jefferson,

Hamilton, Madison, and others probably cannot be surpassed in any country.

**704. Birth of Literature.** — It was not until these stirring times had passed, when affairs had become in a sense settled, and the United States had lost to a great extent its provincial character, and had taken upon itself a higher degree of civilization, that the country had the opportunity to turn its attention to real literary pursuits. Then a period of great intellectual development followed, bringing forward poets, novelists, essayists, and scientists, whose works have been widely read in all parts of the world.

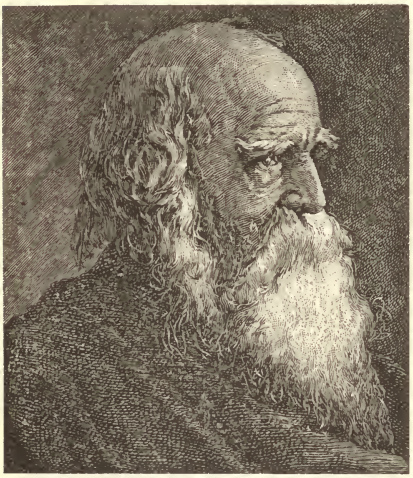
James Fenimore Cooper.

**705. Washington Irving.** — The pioneer of American literature, or, as some one has said, the first ambassador whom the New World of Letters sent to the Old, was born in New York, in 1783. Washington Irving's first book, "Knickerbocker's History of New York," published in 1809, was read by everybody. This pretended to be a veritable history of New York, but was in reality a parody on the manners and customs of the early Dutch colonists. About 1820, Irving published his "Sketch Book," which is a delightful series of pen pictures on various subjects. The best known of these are "Rip Van Winkle" and the "Legend of Sleepy Hollow." After this he wrote many volumes on widely differing subjects, closing his life work by the publication of the "Life of Washington."



Nathaniel Hawthorne.

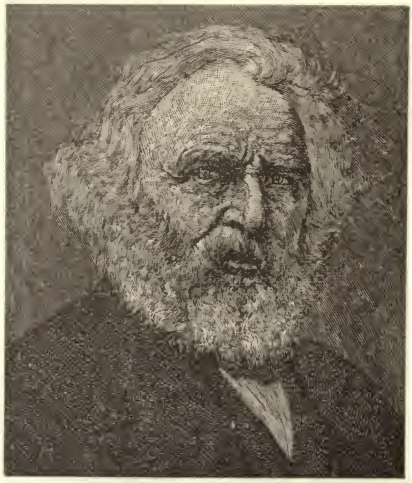
**706. Novelists.** — James Fenimore Cooper, whom Victor Hugo calls the American Scott, was a native of New Jersey, and the first novelist to be extensively read. He is intensely national, and his stories all deal with American subjects. His "Spy," published in 1821, was the first to be specially noticed. This was followed by many others. The "Pilot," with Paul Jones as the hero, published in 1823, is the best of the sea stories, and the "Last of the Mohicans," a story of Indian life, given to the public in 1826, is the best of the Leather-stocking Tales.



William Cullen Bryant.

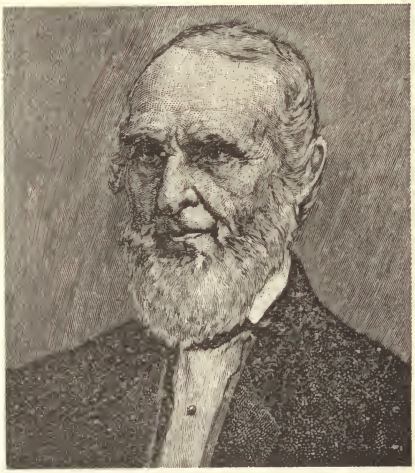
William Gilmore Simms wrote in a vein quite similar to that of Cooper. His best-known works are "The Yemassee," "The Partisan," and "Beauchampe."

Nathaniel Hawthorne, "the greatest imaginative writer since Shakespeare," was a rare genius, who wrote with a style unlike that of any other author. Hawthorne belonged to an old Puritan family, and, though extremely shy and retiring, was nevertheless a keen observer. "Twice Told Tales," published in 1837, was his first recognized work, but it was several years before his genius was fully realized. "The Scarlet Letter," considered by some his best work, was issued in 1850. This was closely followed by "The House of Seven Gables" and "The Blithedale Romance." "The Marble Faun" came out in 1860, and vies with "The Scarlet Letter" in popularity.



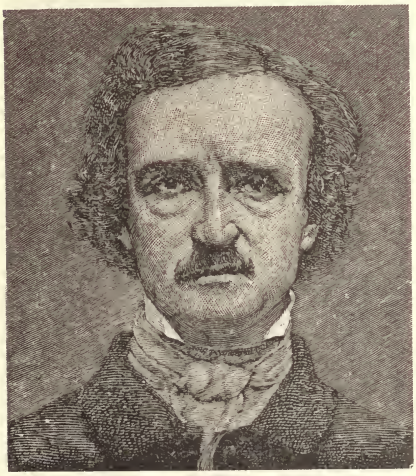
Henry Wadsworth Longfellow.

**707. Poets.** — William Cullen Bryant, the father of American poetry, began writing verses when but ten years of age. The sublime "Thanatopsis," his finest poem, was written when he was but eighteen. Bryant was essentially a poet of nature. "To a Waterfowl" and "A Forest Hymn" are among the best of his shorter poems. His translations of Homer's "Iliad" and "The Odyssey," begun when he was a very old man, hold first rank among English translations.



John Greenleaf Whittier.

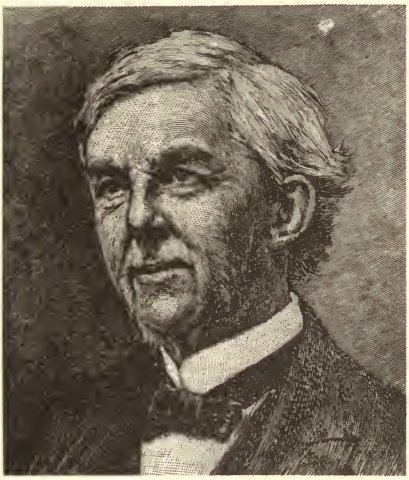
The most beloved of all American poets is Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, born in Portland, Maine, in 1807. His poems are so graceful and dainty, so clear and simple, that children love and understand them as well as do those of maturer mind. Some of the most popular of his shorter poems are "The Psalm of Life," "The Reaper and the Flowers," "The Village Blacksmith," and "The Skeleton in Armor." "Evangeline," a story of Acadia, "Hiawatha," a tale of Indian life, and "The Courtship of Miles Standish," a poem of Pilgrim days, are among his longer works.



Edgar Allan Poe.

John Greenleaf Whittier, New England's Quaker poet, was the great champion of freedom, whose verses did much to hasten the fall of slavery. His later poems are, however, the most finished. "Snowbound," published in 1865, a delightful idyl of country life, "Barbara Frietchie," a tale of the Rebellion, and "Maud Muller" are widely known.

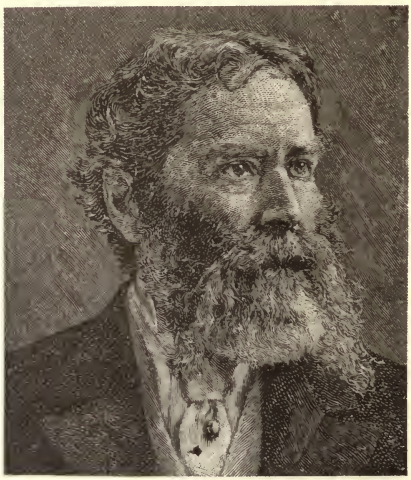
Edgar Allan Poe, like Hawthorne, was a most imaginative writer, whose poems, among which are "The Bells" and "The Raven," are weird, melancholy productions.



Oliver Wendell Holmes.

The poems of Oliver Wendell Holmes are full of a delicate wit, of which "The Deacon's Masterpiece, or the Wonderful One-Hoss Shay" is a good example. But his fame does not depend wholly upon his verses, for his prose works, such as the "Autocrat of the Breakfast Table," and his novels, "Elsie Venner" and "The Guardian Angel," are written in the most delightful English.

James Russell Lowell, who, like Longfellow and Holmes, occupied a professor's chair in Harvard University, gave his whole life to literature. His name first became widely known when he published, during the War with Mexico, the humorous "Biglow Papers," written in Yankee dialect. "The Vision of Sir Launfal" is his most finished work.

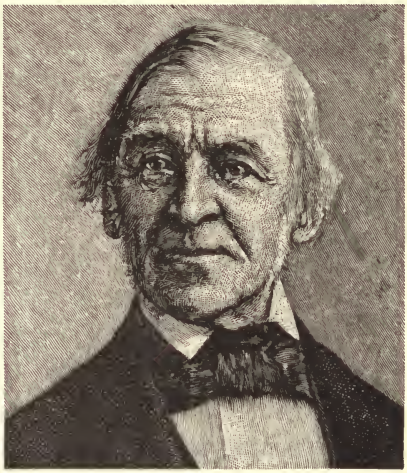


James Russell Lowell.

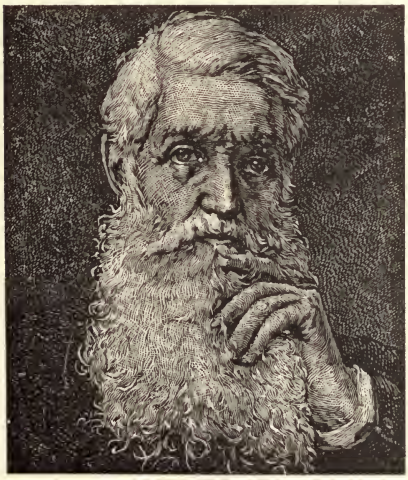
**708. Philosophers.** — Ralph Waldo Emerson stands first among America's profound thinkers, scholars, and essayists. His poems are of great beauty, and his essays are full of sublime thoughts. Henry D. Thoreau, a strange recluse, and A. Bronson Alcott assisted in bringing into prominence the School of Philosophy at Concord.

**709. Historians.** — Among the historians, George Bancroft and Richard Hildreth hold high rank as writers of American history. The first volume of Bancroft's

"History of the United States" appeared in 1834, while the last was not published until 1882. William Hickling Prescott, though laboring under the greatest of difficulties, wrote many brilliant and readable histories. Among them are the "History of Ferdinand and Isabella," "The Conquest of Mexico," and "Philip the Second." John Lothrop Motley's "The Rise of the Dutch Republic," "The History of the United Netherlands," and "Life of John of Barneveld," are valuable additions to libraries. Jared Sparks, at one time President of Harvard College, edited the biographies of many famous Americans. The histories written by Francis Parkman thoroughly and accurately discuss the position of the French and English in America, and are as interesting as any novel. Parkman, like Prescott, is a splendid example of one who, overcoming great obstacles, has accomplished a magnificent work.



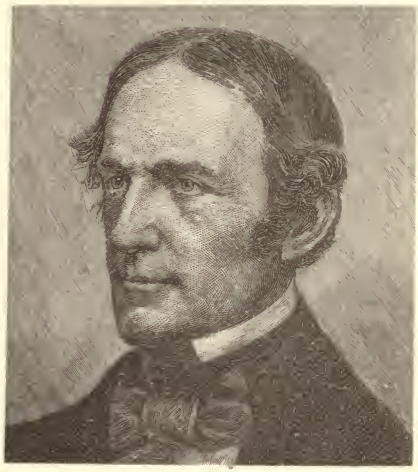
Ralph Waldo Emerson.



George Bancroft.

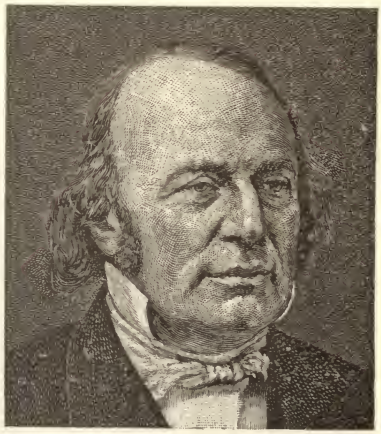
**710. Scientists.** — America can well be proud of its deep thinkers in many branches of science. Louis Agassiz the noted zoölogist and geologist, John James Audubon the naturalist, Nathaniel Bowditch the mathematician and astronomer, Asa Gray the botanist, Arnold Guyot the geographist, and Benjamin Silliman the chemist, are all authorities in their various departments. One of the most valuable contributions to knowledge was that of the English Dictionary, compiled by Noah Webster.

**711. Later Writers.** — The latter half of the century has produced a large number of authors of no small renown, who are widely scattered over the country. American writers of the present time especially excel in short stories, and in the diversity and wide range of subjects. Many do not confine themselves to one branch alone, but are equally well known in their prose and poetical works. Another noticeable feature is the number and excellent quality of the books written for children whose wants had been sadly neglected.



William Hickling Prescott.

**712. Artists.** — As the intellectual powers of the colonists began to broaden, the natural love for the beautiful, at first rigorously repressed in many parts of the country, also began to show itself, and artists of no mean ability made their appearance. The first of these was Benjamin West, a poor Quaker lad, who won for himself great renown in England as well as in America. West was closely followed by John Singleton Copley, the portrait painter, who placed on canvas the features of so many of the patriots of the Revolution. After Copley came Gilbert Stuart, "the greatest colorist" America has produced, who painted the best-known portrait of Washington; and Washington Allston, who is said to have held the place in American art that Washington Irving held in literature. Peale, Trumbull, Vanderlyn, and Malbone, as portrait painters, and Durand, Cole, Kensett, and Inness as landscape



Professor Louis Agassiz.

painters, also hold high rank. At the present time American artists have turned their attention to black and white drawings, to water-colors, and to illustrating for books and magazines, which they have raised to the highest degree of art.

**713. Sculptors.** — Of all the arts, that of sculpture was the last to make its appearance. Nevertheless many Americans have won lasting renown by their skill in fashioning the human form in clay. Among the best known of the artists are Hiram Powers, Horatio Greenough, who planned the Bunker Hill monument, Thomas Crawford, one of whose finest works is the statue of liberty on the dome of the Capitol at Washington, Randolph Rogers, who designed the famous bronze doors of the Capitol, and William W. Story.

## CHAPTER LXXXI.

### THE NATION OF TO-DAY.

**714. The South.** — One of the most noticeable changes that has occurred in the United States during the last thirty years is the recuperation of the South. The forms of industry and the modes of living have been almost revolutionized in many of the States that formerly suffered under the evils of slavery. Marked improvements have taken place in the dwellings and material comforts of the middle classes throughout these Southern States. There has been also a notable change in the status of the negro, who, as a freedman, feeling himself to be his own master, has received some stimulus toward bettering his condition. As labor ceased to be a disgrace, thrift and energy became more common among all classes. The public school has diminished much of the illiteracy that was a necessary accompaniment of slavery.

**715. Its Industries.** — In industry and wealth, the South has made remarkable strides during these recent years. Agriculture continues to be the most important occupation. Soil and climate are unsurpassed for the production of many of the most valuable crops. The lumber regions are greater than in most other sections, and half of

the available timber of the country is to be found in the twelve most Southern States. The mines are valuable, and have but just begun to be worked. In four of these States, the output of iron is already more than one-sixth of that of the whole United States, and the coal product multiplied four times between 1880 and 1890. The most marked change has taken place in manufactures. A vigorous start has been made in many directions. Cheap land, good water-power, abundance of coal, iron, and lumber, are important aids. The necessary transportation is furnished by the new railroads, the mileage of which is five times as great as in 1860. The population in some of the States is growing as rapidly as in any portion of the country. The characteristic occupations which formerly distinguished the Southern people are rapidly changing, and the nation is becoming more and more completely unified.

**716. The Great West.** — One of the most important provisions of the Treaty of 1783 (¶ 367) was that which assured to the United States the Northwest Territory. Jefferson's fifteen million dollars added to the young nation the Louisiana Territory (¶ 426). These two great regions have exhibited to the world a growth and development unprecedented in all history. The population has made most remarkable strides, and the productions have increased to an equal extent. In the year 1775 the entire population west of the Alleghanies was so small that no account of it was made. In 1860 one-half of all the inhabitants in the United States lived to the west of the Appalachian range. To-day nearly a quarter of the people inhabit the Northwest Territory, and millions dwell west of the Mississippi River. During the ten years from 1880 to 1890, the population of the United States gained nearly twenty-five per cent, while in the six new States admitted in 1889 and 1890, the growth averaged two hundred and seventy-five per cent.

**717. Its Industries.** — The two most important pursuits of the "Great West" are agriculture and mining. The Northwest Territory produces a quarter of all the corn grown in the country, and nearly a third of the wheat. Six States west of the Mississippi raise nearly a half of all the corn produced in the United States, and nine of these States nearly half the wheat. These fourteen States furnish nearly a fifth of the wheat obtained in the whole world. A large portion of the copper and iron of the United States is found in the

# 1896.

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Great West, and nearly all the gold and silver. The United States furnishes nearly one-half of the copper, one-third of the iron and silver, and one-quarter of the gold mined in the world. With these enormous agricultural and mining products of the West, and the manufacturing industries of the East, the country is enabled to provide what it needs.

**718. Immigration.** — The rapid increase in population has been due mainly to immigration, which has been growing in volume during the past seventy years. Between the adoption of the Constitution and the year 1820 perhaps a quarter of a million foreigners came to live in the United States. Since that date the number of immigrants has been more than seventeen millions. Neither the North, East, South, nor West could have developed in the manner that it has were it not for these vast multitudes that have come to our aid, bringing in their labor and capital, to increase the productions of their adopted country. The immigrants have come from all quarters of the globe, but mostly from Europe. Great Britain and Ireland have furnished more than six millions, and Germany has added four and a half millions more. Norway and Sweden, Austria-Hungary, Italy, France, Russia and Poland, Switzerland, and other European nations, have sent over their hundreds of thousands. A few of these have been skilled laborers and professional men, but perhaps nine-tenths have belonged to the class of unskilled laborers, or have possessed no occupation whatever. Many of this latter class have been brought over by employers who sought for the cheapest labor that could be obtained. In order to stop this practice, Congress passed a Contract Labor Act, by which no foreigner is admitted to this country who has come under a contract to labor for some particular employer (¶ 695). Other laws have been passed to check the immigration of those classes which can add nothing to the wealth or productiveness of the country, but which tend to increase the number of the idle and disturbing elements.

**719. Its Diversity.** — Waves of immigration have been common during the history of the world, but in many respects they have differed from this influx of people into the United States. In the past there have been examples of the migration of a whole nation from one country to another, which frequently drove out the former inhabi-

tants. But in all those cases the incomers have been people of one nationality. The immigrants who have come to our shores have been from nations having different languages, different religions, different customs and habits. They must be united, assimilated, made to regard the United States as their country, and all their neighbors as their fellow-countrymen. The most important means to this end is the public school, which brings all the children together and teaches them a common language, common habits, and common customs.

**720. Public Schools.** — The public-school system began in a few of the Northern colonies (¶ 174) during the early years of their existence. From these it gradually spread over the Northern portion, until it was general in all sections of the country except in the slave States. Previous to the civil war some system of public schools existed in but four of the States south of Mason and Dixon's line, while to-day every State in the Union provides free instruction for its children. The principle upon which the system is based is that the State should educate the children of the State.

**721. Education.** — The enrolment of more than fourteen million pupils in our schools, or one-fifth of the population, promises future safety for our free institutions. Besides the schools, the twenty thousand newspapers of the country, nearly one-half of all those published in the world, the great number of periodicals of all descriptions, and the numerous public libraries, furnish still further instruction. With these educational advantages, the citizen will vote more intelligently, crime will be diminished, a feeling of independence will be produced, inventions will be fostered, and the whole condition of the people will be elevated.

**722. Higher Education.** — The Colleges of Liberal Arts and the Universities furnish higher instruction, and fittingly cap the educational system. One or more of these four hundred and seventy-six institutions is to be found in every State but one, and in some the college is a part of the State system of instruction. More than one hundred and fifty thousand are being educated in these institutions, nearly thirty thousand of them in the Professional Schools of Law, Theology, Medicine, etc. Higher education is not limited to the colleges, as Normal Schools, University Extension, the

Chautauqua System of Education, and Summer Schools assist in the great work.

**723. Religion.** — A great change in the religious aspect has passed over the country within the past one hundred and twenty years. In the colonial period, religious toleration was granted in but three colonies (¶ 183). Church and State were regarded as inseparable, and the people were taxed to support the Church. In New England, the Congregational Churches were established by law (¶ 180), and in the Southern colonies the Church of England (¶ 179). Laws were passed discriminating against those who did not accept the faith of the established church, and severe punishments were inflicted upon those who dared to profess other forms.

**724. Freedom.** — The spirit of freedom which brought about the War for Independence also led to a modification of the religious laws. Freedom of religion, freedom of speech, and freedom of the press are now universally recognized. The Constitution of the United States directs that "Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of the speech or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble and to petition the government for a redress of grievances." The Church and State are kept entirely distinct, and the one hundred and sixty-five thousand church organizations of the nearly one hundred and fifty denominations live together in amity, each being equal with the others before the law.

**725. Benevolence.** — With the growth of material prosperity has come a fuller realization that owners of great possessions have special duties to perform. Millions of dollars are bestowed every year upon deserving institutions and works of charity. Hospitals and asylums have been established by private beneficence, as well as by the different States and cities. Institutions like the American Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb in Hartford, the Perkins Institute for the Blind at Boston, and the Massachusetts School for Idiotic and Feeble-Minded Youth have been carrying on their good work for many years. There are more than a hundred homes and asylums in New York city alone.

**726. Gifts to the Public.** — Gifts have not been confined to charitable work alone. Money has been bequeathed and given to various cities for the purchase and laying out of parks, that resting and

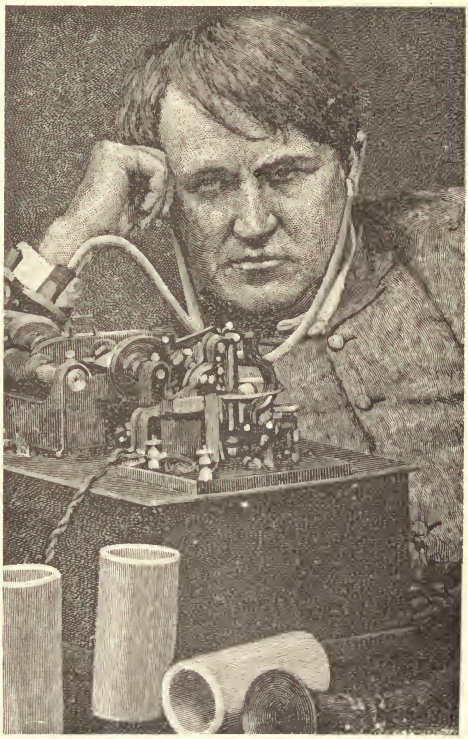
"breathing places" might be provided for the people, who otherwise would be kept shut up within four walls. Money has been profitably expended in the establishment of public libraries. Millions of dollars have been given in endowing the University of Chicago, Leland Stanford, Jr. University, in California, and numbers of other colleges in all sections of the land. Immense bequests have been made for the education of the negro and the Indian, such as those of Daniel Hand, John F. Slater, and George Peabody. These bountiful gifts, providing permanent benefits to the people, are among the new and wonderful conditions of our times.

**727. Temperance.** — Among the various charitable organizations are Homes for Inebriates, and Missions for the rescue of those addicted to the habit of strong drink. The evils resulting from drunkenness have been more recognized as evils during the last fifty years than ever before. A hundred years ago it was the custom to have a "social glass" on nearly all occasions. Since the organization of the "Washingtonian Temperance Society" in 1840, much has been done to diminish intemperance, and the opposition to the use of intoxicating drinks has grown stronger and stronger. Temperance people are very much divided on the question as to the *legal* steps that should be taken, and "prohibition," "local option," "high license," and "restriction of liquor limits," are words that are often heard as the subject is discussed. Meanwhile education concerning the evil effects of strong drink is being persistently furthered. Laws requiring scientific temperance instruction to be given to the pupils in the public schools have been adopted by the legislatures of forty States, and by Congress for all schools under its control.

**728. Inventions.** — The development of the country has been greatly aided by the numerous inventions that enterprising Americans have perfected. Five hundred and fifty thousand patents have been granted during the last sixty years, about twenty thousand of these in the year 1894. Some of the most important have already been described, as the cotton-gin (¶ 397), the steamboat (¶ 456), and the telegraph (¶ 486). The whole system of agriculture has been changed by the machinery which has been invented within sixty years. In 1834 Cyrus H. McCormick succeeded in perfecting a reaping-machine, — an instrument which had been desired for

a long time. This machine, which was propelled by horses (later by steam), mowed the grain, and, by a later improvement, bound it into sheaves. Horse-rakes and horse-threshers have also been invented, and thereby farm labor, which previously had been performed almost entirely by hand, has been greatly lightened.

The first sewing-machine was invented by Elias Howe in 1845. Two years later, R. M. Hoe perfected his cylinder printing-press. This invention has revolutionized the whole business of printing, and has made possible the issuing of hundreds of thousands of newspapers, cut, printed, and folded, from the same press. Charles Goodyear discovered, in 1839, the method of "vulcanizing" India-rubber, so as to make it hard, and able to withstand the rough usage which rubber goods must receive.



Thomas A. Edison. (Copyright, by W. K. L. Dickson.)

The adaptation of electricity, which began when Benjamin Franklin proved that it was identical with lightning, has been continued, until we have to-day the telegraph, the telephone, invented by A. G. Bell, in 1877, the electric light for street and house, the electric car for the street railway, and the phonograph, or "talking-machine," invented by Thomas A. Edison, besides the numberless other uses to which this wonderful power has already been applied.

A mere mention of a few of the other important inventions will be all that can be given. The grain elevator, the steam dredge, machines for the manufacture of nails, the revolver, the screw-propeller, the safe, the breech-loading gun, the type-writer, the type-

setting machine, and the bicycle are well known. The development of photography, especially during the last few years, has been remarkable. Thousands of minor patents have been issued, which add to the comfort, convenience, and happiness of the people.

## CHAPTER LXXXII.

### PAST, PRESENT, AND FUTURE.

**729. Territorial Growth.** — By the treaty of peace with Great Britain in 1783 (¶ 367), the boundaries of the United States were defined. They were the Atlantic on the east, and the Mississippi on the west, the northern line of Florida on the south, and the Great Lakes and Canada on the north. This extent of territory remained unchanged until the year 1803 (¶ 426). By the purchase of Louisiana, the United States came into possession of that immense tract of territory which is bounded upon the east by the Mississippi throughout its whole extent, and which extends northward to latitude 49°, westward to the Rocky Mountains, and to the south as far as the Gulf of Mexico.

In 1819 we secured the coast of the Gulf of Mexico from the Atlantic to Louisiana, by the Florida treaty (¶ 446). Our next accession was the annexation of Texas in 1845 (¶ 484). After the war with Mexico, by the treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo (¶ 497), the two provinces of New Mexico and California were added to the United States. The Gadsden purchase in 1853 definitely fixed our southwestern boundary. By right of discovery in 1792, by exploration in 1805–6, by actual settlement in 1811, by purchase of French claims in 1803, and of Spanish claims in 1819, Oregon belonged to the United States. By the treaty with Great Britain in 1846 (¶ 485), that country yielded to us all her claims south of latitude 49°. In 1867 our latest addition was made by the purchase of Alaska from Russia (¶ 652).

The United States to-day, embracing about 3,600,000 square miles, may be considered as composed of four nearly equal divisions. The first part, a little less than a quarter of the whole,

includes the original territory east of the Mississippi River, together with Florida; the second quarter, of about 900,000 square miles, embraces the province of Louisiana; the third quarter consists of the original Texas, about 300,000 square miles, and the Mexican cessions of about 600,000 more; and the fourth quarter includes the Oregon country, about 300,000 square miles, and Alaska, about 600,000 more.

**730. Growth of Population.** — While the territory of the United States has become more than four times what it was in 1789, the population has increased four times four. The causes of this remarkable increase are not hard to find. The natural advantages of the country are united to certain peculiar characteristics of the government and the people, and, therefore, offer exceptional advantages to the people of other countries. The freedom which the United States promises, and the absence of all forms of caste, invite immigration. The opportunity is afforded to rise to any position of honor; the possibility is presented for every one to overcome any difficulties which might oppress him; and hard work and energy are alone needed to enable a citizen of the United States to make a name for himself.

On the 4th of July, 1851, the corner-stone of a vast extension to the national Capitol at Washington was laid by the President with appropriate ceremonies. On that occasion, Daniel Webster was the orator of the day. The table (next page) shows the statement which he made relative to the progress of our country since 1793. In order to present the continuation of this progress the last column is added, showing the statistics in 1896, so far as known.

**731. Present Population.** — The aggregate population of the United States is about seventy-one millions. The average population per square mile is nearly twenty for the entire area. The greatest average per square mile is in Rhode Island, which has nearly three hundred. If the entire country had a population as dense as Rhode Island now has, it would contain over a thousand millions, or two-thirds the present population of the globe. The population of the United States has doubled, on the average, every twenty-five years, and is to-day sixteen times what it was a hundred years ago. The number of people in the United States must be increased sixfold before the number per square mile will equal that of Europe to-day.

| | 1793. | 1851. | 1896. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Number of States in the Union | 15 | 31 | 45 |
| Members of Congress | 135 | 295 | 447 |
| Population of the United States | 3,929,328 | 23,267,499 | [1] 71,197,652 |
| Population of the City of New York | 33,121 | 515,507 | [2] 1,801,739 |
| Revenue | $5,720,624 | $43,774,848 | $313,390,075 |
| Imports | $31,000,000 | $178,138,314 | $731,969,965 |
| Exports | $26,109,000 | $151,898,720 | $793,392,599 |
| Tonnage of vessels | 320,769 | 3,538,454 | 4,635,960 |
| Extent of territory of the United States in square miles | 801,461 | 3,021,883 | 3,602,990 |
| Miles of railroad in operation | none. | 10,287 | [3] 175,508 |
| Lines of electric telegraph in miles | none. | 15,000 | 189,714 |
| Number of post-offices | 209 | 21,551 | 70,064 |
| Number of colleges | 19 | 121 | 476 |

[1] Estimated. [2] Census of 1892. [3] 1894.

**732. Present Extent.** — The entire extent of our country at the present time is 3,602,990 square miles. This area is about the same as that of all Europe. It is nearly the size of China. It is more than half as large as the whole of South America. It is nearly thirty times the size of Great Britain and Ireland, eighteen times as large as France, and twenty times the size of Spain. Any one of twenty-four States has a greater area than England. Four States and three Territories are each larger than Italy, Montana is larger than Norway, California than Japan, and Texas than either Austria-Hungary, the German Empire, France, or Spain, and Alaska Territory than the German Empire, France, Italy, Holland, Belgium, and Denmark combined.

**733. Natural Advantages.** — The advantages which give the United States its pre-eminence are of two kinds. The natural advantages of the country equal, and perhaps surpass, those of any other region on the earth's surface. The soil is not only exceptionally good in many portions of the country, but it is capable of raising a great variety of products. The ground contains under its surface a large amount of metallic ores and an almost inexhaustible stock of coal. The climate is very varied, so that the United States is capable of producing, and in fact does produce, nearly everything which the people can desire.

In its rivers the United States possesses an advantage which cannot be overestimated. Many of the smaller streams are capable of furnishing unsurpassed water-power. Some of the larger rivers traverse vast extents and offer to commerce exceptional privileges. The Mississippi River, unlike most of the great rivers of the world, flows across the lines of latitude. Though the Amazon River is as great as the Mississippi, yet the land at its mouth furnishes the same tropical products as the country at its source. On the other hand, the wheat of Minnesota and Dakota is, by means of the Mississippi, exchanged for the rice, the cotton, and the sugar of the Southern States.

**734. National Advantages.** — Besides the natural advantages which belong to the United States, the political characteristics of the nation present exceptional opportunities. Some of these have been suggested. The public-school system and the State, county, and town governments, offering local, as contrasted with a centralized, government, are important aids in determining the welfare of the country. The fact that the United States is customarily at peace and does not need to keep a standing army, as is necessary among European nations, is another great advantage.

**735. The Future.** — "It is clear that this great republic has an important future before it. In its prosperity is bound up the question of popular government. If we succeed, a brilliant future may be predicted for the human race. If we fail, the hand goes back for ages on the dial of progress. The result depends largely upon the intelligence and the virtue of the masses. If the people are educated to read and to think and to decide for themselves, if they retain virtue and godliness, the republic is safe, and the destiny of the race is safe also."

**736. Questions of the Future.** — A knowledge of the history of the United States is necessary to an understanding of the country as it is to-day. Such an understanding is necessary in order to settle the questions which the future holds in store. Some of the future questions are now before the people. They form current history, which will be the history to be studied by future generations. Most of these questions have been discussed to a certain extent already, and their settlement must come at no very distant day.

How shall the difficulties that exist between the laborers and the

employers be so settled that both may work together in harmony, feeling that each has a care for the interests of the other? (Labor Question.) (¶ 691.)

How many foreigners shall be permitted to come to the United States, and what restrictions shall be placed upon immigration, so that the best interests of the country and the people shall be preserved? (Immigration Question.) (¶ 718.)

What means shall be used for raising the necessary revenue, or what kind of tariff duties shall be levied, so as to promote the material welfare of the country and increase to its fullest extent the productiveness of the people? (Tariff Question.) (¶ 683.)

What steps shall be taken to purify elections, so that every voter may cast his ballot in the way that seems to him likely to conserve the best interests of the country? (Ballot Reform.) (¶ 689.)

What qualifications should voters have, that their ballots shall not be unwisely cast, and to what new classes should the ballot be given? (Suffrage Question.)

What laws should be passed, and what forms of moral influence should be used, to save the people from the curse of intemperance? (Temperance Question.) (¶ 727.)

What arrangements ought the national, state, and local governments to enter into, so that their affairs may be carried on in business-like ways, and that the money required to maintain governments shall be expended in the most economical manner? (Civil Service Reform.) (¶ 687.)

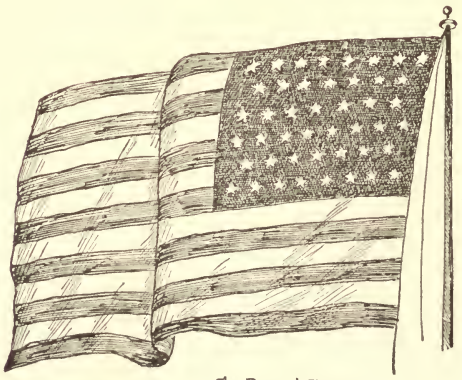
What methods can be devised to awake the business and professional men of the country to the dangers of municipal corruption, in order that the government of our great cities may be rescued from the hands of untrustworthy men, and administered in a business-like manner, for the welfare of all concerned? (Municipal Government Reform.)

These are among the numerous questions which the people of the future must answer. There are also race problems, educational questions, and religious matters, that are prominent before the people. They all demand the careful and thoughtful consideration, not only of the present voters, but also of the school-children, who will soon be called upon to cast their ballots, and whose decision will eventually decide the welfare of the country.

## CHRONOLOGY.

**1865.** Review of the armies, May 23, 24.
Thirteenth Amendment ratified, December 18.
**1866.** Tennessee readmitted.
Atlantic cable finished, July 27.
Invasion of Canada.
**1867.** Tenure of Office Act, March 4.
Purchase of Alaska, March 30.
**1868.** Impeachment of the President, February to May.
Six States readmitted.
Fourteenth Amendment ratified, July 28.
**1869.** President Grant inaugurated, March 4.
Pacific Railroad completed, May 10.
**1870.** Reconstruction completed, March 30.
Fifteenth Amendment ratified, March 30.
**1871.** Treaty of Washington, May 8.
Burning of Chicago, October 8, 9.
Ku Klux disorders.
**1872.** Geneva awards, September.
Burning of Boston, November 9.
Modoc War.
**1873.** Beginning of the panic.
**1876.** Centennial celebration, May to November.
Sioux War.
**1877.** Electoral Commission, February.
President Hayes inaugurated, March 5.
Railroad strikes.
Invention of the telephone.
**1878.** Yellow fever epidemic.
"Bland Silver Bill."
**1879.** Resumption of specie payments, January 1.
Formation of the Knights of Labor.
**1881.** President Garfield inaugurated, March 4.
Death of President Garfield, September 19.
**1882.** Mississippi floods.
Anti-polygamy Act.
Tariff commission appointed.
**1883.** New Tariff Act.
"Pendleton Civil Service Reform Bill."
Cheaper Postage Act.
**1885.** President Cleveland inaugurated, March 4.
Contract Labor Act.

**1886.** Anarchist riot at Chicago, May.
Charleston earthquake.
Presidential Succession Act.
**1887.** Interstate Commerce Act.
Presidential Election Act.
President's tariff message, December.
**1888.** Chinese Immigration Act.
**1889.** President Harrison inaugurated, March 4.
Johnstown flood, May 31.
Territory of Oklahoma formed.
**1890.** New Tariff Act.
"Sherman Silver Bill."
**1892.** Naval parade, October 12.
**1893.** President Cleveland inaugurated, March 4.
World's Columbian Exhibition, May to November.
Repeal of the "Sherman Silver Bill."
Republic of Hawaii, January 16.
**1894.** Pullman boycott, June.
New Tariff Act, August 27.
**1895.** Venezuela message, December 17.
**1896.** Issue of Gold Reserve Bonds, February.
National Civil Service Reform completed, May 6.
**1897.** President McKinley inaugurated, March 4.
Dingley Bill.



The Present Flag

# APPENDIXES.

## APPENDIX A.

### THE MAYFLOWER COMPACT.

In the name of God, Amen; We whose names are under-written, the loyall subjects of our dread soveraigne Lord, King James, by ye grace of God of Great Britaine, Franc, & Ireland king, defender of ye faith, &c., haveing undertaken, for ye glorie of God and advancemente of ye Christian faith, and honour of our king and countrie, a voyage to plant the first colonie in ye Northerne parts of Virginia, doe by these presents solemnly and mutualy in ye presence of God, and one of another, covenant and combine ourselves together into a civill body politick, for our better o. lering and preservation and furtherance of ye ends aforesaid; and *by vertue hearof* to enacte, constitute, and frame such just and equall lawes, ordinances, acts, constitutions, and offices, from time to time, as shall be thought most meete and convenient for ye generall good of ye Colonie, unto which we promise all due submission and obedience.

## APPENDIX B.

### THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

In Congress, July 4, 1776.

A DECLARATION BY THE REPRESENTATIVES OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, IN CONGRESS ASSEMBLED.

When, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle

them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident: — That all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organising its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and, accordingly, all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But, when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies; and such is now the necessity that constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having, in direct object, the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these States. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his Governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his assent should be obtained; and, when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature — a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measure.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly, for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise; the State remaining, in the meantime, exposed to all dangers of invasion from without, and convulsions within.

He has endeavored to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose obstructing the laws for the naturalization of foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislatures.

He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitutions, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation:

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us;

For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these States;

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world;

For imposing taxes on us without our consent;

For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury;

For transporting us beyond seas, to be tried for pretended offences;

For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing there an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies;

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the forms of our governments;

For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here, by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation, and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrection amongst us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions we have petitioned for redress, in the most humble terms; our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in our attentions to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity; and we have conjured them, by the ties of our common kindred, to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation; and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war, in peace friends.

We, therefore, the Representatives of the United States of America, in General Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these united Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent states, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. And, for the support of this declaration, with a firm

reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

The foregoing Declaration was, by order of Congress, engrossed and signed by the following members: —

JOHN HANCOCK.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

JOSIAH BARTLETT,
WILLIAM WHIPPLE,
MATTHEW THORNTON.

MASSACHUSETTS BAY.

SAMUEL ADAMS,
JOHN ADAMS,
ROBERT TREAT PAINE,
ELBRIDGE GERRY.

RHODE ISLAND.

STEPHEN HOPKINS,
WILLIAM ELLERY.

CONNECTICUT.

ROGER SHERMAN,
SAMUEL HUNTINGTON,
WILLIAM WILLIAMS,
OLIVER WOLCOTT.

NEW YORK.

WILLIAM FLOYD,
PHILIP LIVINGSTON,
FRANCIS LEWIS,
LEWIS MORRIS.

NEW JERSEY.

RICHARD STOCKTON,
JOHN WITHERSPOON,
FRANCIS HOPKINSON,
JOHN HART,
ABRAHAM CLARK.

PENNSYLVANIA.

ROBERT MORRIS,
BENJAMIN RUSH,
BENJAMIN FRANKLIN,
JOHN MORTON,
GEORGE CLYMER,
JAMES SMITH,
GEORGE TAYLOR,
JAMES WILSON,
GEORGE ROSS.

DELAWARE.

CÆSAR RODNEY,
GEORGE READ,
THOMAS M'KEAN.

MARYLAND.

SAMUEL CHASE,
WILLIAM PACA,
THOMAS STONE.

CHARLES CARROLL,
of Carrollton.

VIRGINIA.

GEORGE WYTHE,
RICHARD HENRY LEE,
THOMAS JEFFERSON,
BENJAMIN HARRISON,
THOMAS NELSON, JR.,
FRANCIS LIGHTFOOT LEE,
CARTER BRAXTON.

NORTH CAROLINA.

WILLIAM HOOPER,
JOSEPH HEWES,
JOHN PENN.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

EDWARD RUTLEDGE,
THOMAS HEYWARD, JR.,
THOMAS LYNCH, JR.,
ARTHUR MIDDLETON.

GEORGIA.

BUTTON GWINNETT,
LYMAN HALL,
GEORGE WALTON.

Resolved that copies of the Declaration be sent to the several assemblies, conventions, and committees, or councils of safety, and to the several commanding officers of the continental troops; that it be proclaimed in each of the United States, at the head of the army.

# APPENDIX C.

## THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

We the People of the United States, in order to form a more perfect Union, establish Justice, insure domestic Tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general Welfare, and secure the Blessings of Liberty to ourselves and our Posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

### ARTICLE I.

[Note. — The small figures in brackets are not in the original, but have been added subsequently, to mark the different clauses in a section. In reprinting the constitution here, the spelling, punctuation, and capitalization of the original have been preserved.]

Section 1. All legislative Powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

Section 2. [1] The House of Representatives shall be composed of Members chosen every second year by the People of the several States, and the Electors in each State shall have the Qualifications requisite for Electors of the most numerous Branch of the State Legislature.

[2] No person shall be a Representative who shall not have attained to the Age of twenty five years, and been seven Years a Citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an Inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

[3] Representatives and direct Taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective Numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole Number of free Persons, including those bound to Service for a Term of Years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other Persons. The actual Enumeration shall be made within three Years after the first Meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent Term of ten Years, in such Manner as they shall by Law direct. The Number of Representatives shall not exceed one for every Thirty Thousand, but each State shall have at Least one Representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to chuse three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode-Island and Providence Plantations one,

Connecticut five, New-York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.

[4] When vacancies happen in the Representation from any State, the Executive Authority thereof shall issue Writs of Election to fill such Vacancies.

[5] The House of Representatives shall chuse their Speaker and other officers; and shall have the sole Power of Impeachment.

SECTION 3. [1] The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof, for six Years; and each Senator shall have one Vote.

[2] Immediately after they shall be assembled in Consequence of the first Election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three Classes. The Seats of the Senators of the first Class shall be vacated at the Expiration of the second Year, of the second Class at the Expiration of the fourth Year, and of the third Class at the Expiration of the sixth Year, so that one-third may be chosen every second Year; and if Vacancies happen by Resignation, or otherwise, during the Recess of the Legislature of any State, the Executive thereof may make temporary Appointments until the next Meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such Vacancies.

[3] No person shall be a Senator who shall not have attained to the Age of thirty Years, and been nine Years a Citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an Inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

[4] The Vice President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no Vote, unless they be equally divided.

[5] The Senate shall chuse their other Officers, and also a President pro tempore, in the Absence of the Vice President, or when he shall exercise the Office of President of the United States.

[6] The Senate shall have the sole Power to try all Impeachments. When sitting for that Purpose, they shall be on Oath or Affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside: And no Person shall be convicted without the Concurrence of two thirds of the Members present.

[7] Judgment in Cases of Impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from Office, and Disqualification to hold and enjoy any Office of honour, Trust or Profit under the United States: but the Party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to Indictment, Trial, Judgment and Punishment, according to Law.

SECTION 4. [1] The Times, Places and Manner of holding Elections for Senators and Representatives, shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by Law make or alter such Regulations, except as to the places of chusing Senators.

[2] The Congress shall assemble at least once in every Year, and such Meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by Law appoint a different Day.

SECTION 5. [1] Each House shall be the Judge of the Elections, Returns and Qualifications of its own Members, and a Majority of each shall constitute a Quorum to do Business; but a smaller Number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the Attendance of absent Members, in such Manner, and under such Penalties as each House may provide.

[2] Each House may determine the Rules of its Proceedings, punish its Members for disorderly Behaviour, and, with the Concurrence of two thirds, expel a Member.

[3] Each House shall keep a Journal of its Proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such Parts as may in their Judgment require Secrecy; and the Yeas and Nays of the Members of either House on any question shall, at the Desire of one fifth of those Present, be entered on the Journal.

[4] Neither House, during the Session of Congress, shall, without the Consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other Place than that in which the two Houses shall be sitting.

SECTION 6. [1] The Senators and Representatives shall receive a Compensation for their Services, to be ascertained by Law, and paid out of the Treasury of the United States. They shall in all Cases, except Treason, Felony and Breach of the Peace, be privileged from Arrest during their Attendance at the Session of their respective Houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either House, they shall not be questioned in any other Place.

[2] No Senator or Representative shall, during the Time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil Office under the Authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the Emoluments whereof shall have been encreased during such time; and no Person holding any Office under the United States, shall be a Member of either House during his Continuance in Office.

SECTION 7. [1] All Bills for raising Revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with Amendments as on other Bills.

[2] Every Bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it become a Law, be presented to the President of the United States; If he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it, with his Objections to that House in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the Objections at large on their Journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such Reconsideration two thirds of that House shall agree to pass the Bill, it shall be sent, together with the Objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two thirds of that House, it shall become a Law. But in all such cases the Votes of both Houses shall be determined by yeas and Nays, and the Names of the Persons voting for and against the Bill shall be entered on the Journal of each House respectively. If any Bill shall not be returned by the President within ten Days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like Manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their Adjournment prevent its Return, in which Case it shall not be a Law.

[3] Every Order, Resolution, or Vote to which the Concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of Adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the Same shall take Effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the Rules and Limitations prescribed in the Case of a Bill.

SECTION 8. The Congress shall have Power

[1] To lay and collect Taxes, Duties, Imposts and Excises, to pay the Debts and provide for the common Defence and general Welfare of the United States; but all Duties, Imposts and Excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

[2] To borrow Money on the credit of the United States;

[3] To regulate Commerce with foreign Nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian Tribes;

[4] To establish an uniform Rule of Naturalization, and uniform Laws on the subject of Bankruptcies throughout the United States;

[5] To coin Money, regulate the Value thereof, and of foreign Coin, and fix the Standard of Weights and Measures;

[6] To provide for the Punishment of counterfeiting the Securities and current Coin of the United States;

[7] To establish Post Offices and post Roads;

[8] To promote the progress of Science and useful Arts, by securing for

limited Times to Authors and Inventors the exclusive Right to their respective Writings and Discoveries;

[9] To constitute Tribunals inferior to the supreme Court;

[10] To define and punish Piracies and Felonies committed on the high Seas, and Offences against the Law of Nations;

[11] To declare War, grant letters of Marque and Reprisal, and make Rules concerning Captures on Land and Water;

[12] To raise and support Armies, but no Appropriation of Money to that Use shall be for a longer Term than two Years;

[13] To provide and maintain a Navy;

[14] To make Rules for the Government and Regulation of the land and naval Forces;

[15] To provide for calling forth the Militia to execute the Laws of the Union, suppress Insurrections and repel Invasions;

[16] To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining, the Militia, and for governing such Part of them as may be employed in the Service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively, the Appointment of the Officers, and the Authority of training the Militia according to the Discipline prescribed by Congress;

[17] To exercise exclusive Legislation in all Cases whatsoever, over such District (not exceeding ten Miles square) as may, by Cession of particular States, and the Acceptance of Congress, become the Seat of the Government of the United States, and to exercise like Authority over all Places purchased by the Consent of the Legislature of the State in which the Same shall be, for the Erection of Forts, Magazines, Arsenals, Dock-Yards, and other needful Buildings; — And

[18] To make all Laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into Execution the foregoing Powers, and all other Powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States, or in any Department or Officer thereof.

SECTION 9. [1] The Migration or Importation of such Persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the Year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a Tax or Duty may be imposed on such Importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each Person.

[2] The Privilege of the Writ of Habeas Corpus shall not be suspended, unless when in Cases of Rebellion or Invasion the public Safety may require it.

[3] No Bill of Attainder or ex post facto Law shall be passed.

[4] No Capitation, or other direct, Tax shall be laid, unless in Proportion to the Census or Enumeration herein before directed to be taken.

[5] No Tax or Duty shall be laid on Articles exported from any State.

[6] No Preference shall be given by any Regulation of Commerce or Revenue to the Ports of one State over those of another: nor shall Vessels bound to, or from, one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay Duties in another.

[7] No Money shall be drawn from the Treasury, but in Consequence of Appropriations made by Law; and a regular Statement and Account of the Receipts and Expenditures of all public Money shall be published from time to time.

[8] No Title of Nobility shall be granted by the United States: And no Person holding any Office of Profit or Trust under them, shall, without the Consent of the Congress, accept of any present, Emolument, Office, or Title, of any kind whatever, from any King, Prince, or foreign State.

SECTION 10. [1] No State shall enter into any Treaty, Alliance, or Confederation; grant Letters of Marque and Reprisal; coin Money; emit Bills of Credit; make any Thing but gold and silver Coin a Tender in Payment of Debts; pass any Bill of Attainder, ex post facto Law, or Law impairing the Obligation of Contracts, or grant any Title of Nobility.

[2] No State shall, without the Consent of the Congress, lay any Imposts or Duties on Imports or Exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing it's inspection Laws: and the net Produce of all Duties and Imposts, laid by any State on Imports or Exports, shall be for the Use of the Treasury of the United States; and all such Laws shall be subject to the Revision and Controul of the Congress.

[3] No State shall, without the Consent of Congress, lay any Duty of Tonnage, keep Troops, or Ships of War in time of Peace, enter into any Agreement or Compact with another State, or with a foreign Power, or engage in War, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent Danger as will not admit of Delay.

## ARTICLE. II.

SECTION 1. [1] The executive Power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his Office during the Term of four Years, and, together with the Vice President, chosen for the same Term, be elected, as follows

[2] Each State shall appoint, in such Manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a Number of Electors, equal to the whole Number of Senators

and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress: but no Senator or Representative, or Person holding an Office of Trust or Profit under the United States, shall be appointed an Elector.

* [3] The Electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by Ballot for two Persons, of whom one at least shall not be an Inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a List of all the Persons voted for, and of the Number of Votes for each; which List they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the Seat of the Government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the Presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the Certificates, and the Votes shall then be counted. The Person having the greatest Number of Votes shall be the President, if such Number be a Majority of the whole Number of Electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such Majority and have an equal number of Votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately chuse by Ballot one of them for President; and if no Person have a Majority, then from the five highest on the List the said House shall in like manner chuse the President. But in chusing the President, the Votes shall be taken by States, the Representation from each State having one Vote; a Quorum for this Purpose shall consist of a Member or Members from two thirds of the States, and a Majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. In every Case, after the Choice of the President, the Person having the greatest Number of Votes of the Electors shall be the Vice President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal Votes, the Senate shall chuse from them by Ballot the Vice President.

[4] The Congress may determine the Time of chusing the Electors, and the Day on which they shall give their Votes; which Day shall be the same throughout the United States.

[5] No Person except a natural born Citizen, or a Citizen of the United States, at the time of the Adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the Office of President; neither shall any Person be eligible to that Office who shall not have attained to the Age of thirty five Years, and been fourteen Years a Resident within the United States.

[6] In Case of the Removal of the President from Office, or of his Death, Resignation, or Inability to discharge the Powers and Duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice President, and the Congress may by Law provide for the Case of Removal, Death, Resignation, or Inability, both of the President and Vice President, declaring what Officer shall then

* This clause has been superseded by the 12th amendment, see page 399.

act as President, and such Officer shall act accordingly, until the Disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

[7] The President shall, at stated Times, receive for his services, a Compensation, which shall neither be encreased nor diminished during the Period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that Period any other Emolument from the United States, or any of them.

[8] Before he enter on the Execution of his Office, he shall take the following Oath or Affirmation: —

"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the Office of President of the United States, and will to the best of my Ability, preserve, protect and defend the Constitution of the United States."

SECTION 2. [1] The President shall be Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, and of the Militia of the several States, when called into the actual Service of the United States; he may require the Opinion, in writing, of the principal Officer in each of the executive Departments, upon any Subject relating to the Duties of their respective Offices, and he shall have Power to grant Reprieves and Pardons for Offences against the United States, except in Cases of Impeachment.

[2] He shall have Power, by and with the Advice and Consent of the Senate, to make Treaties, provided two thirds of the Senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the Advice and Consent of the Senate, shall appoint Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls, Judges of the supreme Court, and all other Officers of the United States, whose Appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by Law: but the Congress may by Law vest the Appointment of such inferior Officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the Courts of Law, or in the Heads of Departments.

[3] The President shall have Power to fill up all Vacancies that may happen during the Recess of the Senate, by granting Commissions which shall expire at the End of their next Session.

SECTION 3. He shall from time to time give to the Congress Information of the State of the Union, and recommend to their Consideration such Measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary Occasions, convene both Houses, or either of them, and in Case of Disagreement between them, with Respect to the time of Adjournment, he may adjourn them to such Time as he shall think proper; he shall receive Ambassadors and other public Ministers; he shall take Care that the Laws be faithfully executed, and shall Commission all the officers of the United States.

SECTION 4. The President, Vice President and all civil Officers of the United States, shall be removed from Office on Impeachment for, and Conviction of, Treason, Bribery, or other high Crimes and Misdemeanors.

## ARTICLE. III.

SECTION 1. The Judicial Power of the United States, shall be vested in one supreme Court, and in such inferior Courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The Judges, both of the supreme and inferior Courts, shall hold their Offices during good Behavior, and shall, at stated Times, receive for their Services, a Compensation which shall not be diminished during their Continuance in Office.

SECTION 2. [1] The Judicial Power shall extend to all Cases, in Law and Equity, arising under this Constitution, the Laws of the United States, and Treaties made, or which shall be made, under their Authority; — to all Cases affecting Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls; — to all Cases of admiralty and maritime Jurisdiction; — to Controversies to which the United States shall be a Party; — to Controversies between two or more States; — between a State and Citizens of another State; — between Citizens of different States, — between Citizens of the same State claiming Lands under Grants of different States, and between a State, or the Citizens thereof, and foreign States, Citizens or Subjects.

[2] In all Cases affecting Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls, and those in which a State shall be Party, the supreme Court shall have original Jurisdiction. In all the other Cases before mentioned, the supreme Court shall have appellate Jurisdiction, both as to Law and Fact, with such Exceptions, and under such Regulations as the Congress shall make.

[3] The Trial of all Crimes, except in Cases of Impeachment, shall be by Jury; and such Trial shall be held in the State where the said Crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the Trial shall be at such Place or Places as the Congress may by Law have directed.

SECTION 3. [1] Treason against the United States, shall consist only in levying War against them, or in adhering to their Enemies, giving them Aid and Comfort. No Person shall be convicted of Treason unless on the Testimony of two Witnesses to the same overt Act, or on Confession in open Court.

[2] The Congress shall have Power to declare the Punishment of Treason, but no Attainder of Treason shall work Corruption of Blood, or Forfeiture except during the Life of the Person attainted.

## ARTICLE. IV.

SECTION 1. Full Faith and Credit shall be given in each State to the public Acts, Records, and judicial Proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may by general Laws prescribe the Manner in which such Acts, Records, and Proceedings shall be proved, and the Effect thereof.

SECTION 2. [1] The Citizens of each State shall be entitled to all Privileges and Immunities of Citizens in the several States.

[2] A Person charged in any State with Treason, Felony, or other Crime, who shall flee from Justice, and be found in another State, shall on Demand of the executive Authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having Jurisdiction of the Crime.

[3] No Person held to Service or Labour in one State, under the Laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in Consequence of any Law or Regulation therein, be discharged from such Service or Labour, but shall be delivered up on Claim of the Party to whom such Service or Labour may be due.

SECTION 3. [1] New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the Jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the Junction of two or more States, or Parts of States, without the Consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

[2] The Congress shall have Power to dispose of and make all needful Rules and Regulations respecting the Territory or other Property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to Prejudice any Claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

SECTION 4. The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a Republican Form of Government, and shall protect each of them against Invasion, and on Application of the Legislature, or of the Executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened) against domestic Violence.

## ARTICLE. V.

The Congress, whenever two thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose Amendments to this Constitution, or, on the Application of the Legislatures of two thirds of the several States, shall call a Convention for proposing Amendments, which, in either Case, shall be valid to all Intents and Purposes, as Part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three fourths of the several States, or by Conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other Mode of Ratification may be

proposed by the Congress; Provided that no Amendment which may be made prior to the Year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any Manner affect the first and fourth Clauses in the Ninth Section of the first Article; and that no State, without its Consent, shall be deprived of its equal Suffrage in the Senate.

## ARTICLE. VI.

[1] All Debts contracted and Engagements entered into, before the Adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.

[2] This Constitution, and the Laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all Treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme Law of the Land; and the Judges in every State shall be bound thereby, any Thing in the Constitution or Laws of any State to the Contrary notwithstanding.

[3] The Senators and Representatives before mentioned, and the Members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial Officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by Oath or Affirmation, to support this Constitution; but no religious Test shall ever be required as a Qualification to any Office or public Trust under the United States.

## ARTICLE. VII.

The Ratification of the Conventions of nine States, shall be sufficient for the Establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the Same.

Done in Convention by the Unanimous Consent of the States present the Seventeenth Day of September in the Year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and Eighty seven and of the Independence of the United States of America the Twelfth. In Witness whereof We have hereunto subscribed our Names,

G° WASHINGTON —

*Presidt and deputy from Virginia*

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

John Langdon — Nicholas Gilman

MASSACHUSETTS.

Nathaniel Gorham — Rufus King

CONNECTICUT.

WM SAML JOHNSON ROGER SHERMAN

NEW YORK.

ALEXANDER HAMILTON

NEW JERSEY.

WIL LIVINGSTON DAVID BREARLEY
WM PATERSON JONA DAYTON

PENNSYLVANIA.

B FRANKLIN THOMAS MIFFLIN
ROBT MORRIS GEO CLYMER
THO FITZSIMONS JARED INGERSOLL
JAMES WILSON GOUV MORRIS

DELAWARE.

GEO READ GUNNING BEDFORD, Jun'r
JOHN DICKINSON RICHARD BASSETT
JACO BROOM

MARYLAND.

JAMES M'HENRY DAN OF ST THOS JENIFER
DANL CARROLL

VIRGINIA.

JOHN BLAIR JAMES MADISON, Jr

NORTH CAROLINA.

WM BLOUNT RICH'D DOBBS SPAIGHT
HU WILLIAMSON

SOUTH CAROLINA.

J RUTLEDGE CHARLES COTESWORTH PINCKNEY
CHARLES PINCKNEY PIERCE BUTLER

GEORGIA.

WILLIAM FEW ABR BALDWIN

Attest. WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary*

## Articles in Addition to, and Amendment of, the Constitution of the United States of America,

*Proposed by Congress, and ratified by the Legislatures of the several States, pursuant to the fifth article of the original Constitution.*

### (ARTICLE I.)

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances.

### (ARTICLE II.)

A well regulated Militia, being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear Arms, shall not be infringed.

### (ARTICLE III.)

No Soldier shall, in time of peace be quartered in any house, without the consent of the Owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

### (ARTICLE IV.)

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no Warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by Oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

### (ARTICLE V.)

No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a Grand Jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the Militia, when in actual service in time of War or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offence to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any Criminal Case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

(ARTICLE VI.)

In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have Compulsory process for obtaining Witnesses in his favour, and to have the Assistance of Counsel for his defence.

(ARTICLE VII.)

In Suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise re-examined in any Court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

(ARTICLE VIII.)

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

(ARTICLE IX.)

The enumeration in the Constitution, of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

(ARTICLE X.)

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

(ARTICLE XI.)

The Judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by Citizens of another State, or by Citizens or Subjects of any Foreign State.

(ARTICLE XII.)

The Electors shall meet in their respective states, and vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same state with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President, and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the

number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate; — The President of the Senate shall, in presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates and the votes shall then be counted; — The person having the greatest number of votes for President, shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of Electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by states, the representation from each state having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the states, and a majority of all the states shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. — The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President, shall be the Vice-President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of Electors appointed, and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice-President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of Senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States.

## (ARTICLE XIII.)

SECTION 1. Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

SECT. 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

## (ARTICLE XIV.)

SECTION 1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States, and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property

without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

SECT. 2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States, according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for president and vice-president of the United States, representatives in Congress, the executive and judicial officers of a State, or the members of the legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion or other crimes, the basis of representation shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens, twenty-one years of age, in such State.

SECT. 3. No person shall be a senator or representative in Congress, or elector of president or vice-president, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States or under any State, who having previously taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may by a vote of two-thirds of each house remove such disability.

SECT. 4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States, nor any State, shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations, and claims shall be held illegal and void.

SECT. 5. The Congress shall have power to enforce by appropriate legislation the provisions of this article.

## (ARTICLE XV.)

SECTION 1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any State, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

SECT. 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

# APPENDIX D.

## EXTRACTS FROM WASHINGTON'S FAREWELL ADDRESS.

Friends and Fellow-Citizens,

The period for a new election of a Citizen, to administer the Executive Government of the United States, being not far distant, and the time actually arrived, when your thoughts must be employed in designating the person, who is to be clothed with that important trust, it appears to me proper, especially as it may conduce to a more distinct expression of the public voice, that I should now apprise you of the resolution I have formed, to decline being considered among the number of those, out of whom a choice is to be made. . . .

In looking forward to the moment, which is intended to terminate the career of my public life, my feelings do not permit me to suspend the deep acknowledgment of that debt of gratitude, which I owe to my beloved country, — for the many honors it has conferred upon me; still more for the steadfast confidence with which it has supported me; and for the opportunities I have thence enjoyed of manifesting my inviolable attachment, by services faithful and persevering, though in usefulness unequal to my zeal. . . . Here, perhaps, I ought to stop. — But a solicitude for your welfare, which cannot end but with my life, and the apprehension of danger, natural to that solicitude, urge me on an occasion like the present, to offer to your solemn contemplation, and to recommend to your frequent review, some sentiments; which are the result of much reflection, of no inconsiderable observation, and which appear to me all important to the permanency of your felicity as a People. . . .

Interwoven as is the love of liberty with every ligament of your hearts, no recommendation of mine is necessary to fortify or confirm the attachment. — The Unity of Government, which constitutes you one people, is also now dear to you. — It is justly so; — for it is a main Pillar in the Edifice of your real independence; the support of your tranquillity at home; your peace abroad; of your safety; of your prosperity in every shape; of that very Liberty, which you so highly prize. . . . It is of infinite moment, that you should properly estimate the immense value of your national Union to your collective and individual happiness; — that you should cherish a cordial, habitual and immoveable attachment to it; accustoming yourselves to think and speak of it as of the Palladium of your political safety and

prosperity; watching for its preservation with jealous anxiety; discountenancing whatever may suggest even a suspicion that it can in any event be abandoned, and indignantly frowning upon the first dawning of every attempt to alienate any portion of our Country from the rest, or to enfeeble the sacred ties which now link together the various parts. . . .

While then every part of our Country thus feels an immediate and particular interest in Union, all the parts combined in the united mass of means and efforts cannot fail to find greater strength, greater resource, proportionably greater security from external danger, a less frequent interruption of their Peace by foreign Nations; and, what is of inestimable value! they must derive from Union an exemption from those broils and wars between themselves, which so frequently afflict neighboring countries, not tied together by the same government; which their own rivalships alone would be sufficient to produce; but which opposite foreign alliances, attachments, and intrigues would stimulate and embitter. . . .

The great rule of conduct for us, in regard to foreign Nations, is, in extending our commercial relations, to have with them as little *Political* connection as possible. . . . Europe has a set of primary interests, which to us have none, or a very remote relation. — Hence she must be engaged in frequent controversies, the causes of which are essentially foreign to our concerns. — Hence therefore it must be unwise in us to implicate ourselves, by artificial ties in the ordinary vicissitudes of her politics, or the ordinary combinations and collisions of her friendships, or enmities. Our detached and distant situation invites and enables us to pursue a different course. . . . 'T is our true policy to steer clear of permanent alliances, with any portion of the foreign world. . . .

'T is substantially true, that virtue or morality is a necessary spring of popular government. . . . Promote, then, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened. —

As a very important source of strength and security, cherish public credit. — One method of preserving it is, to use it as sparingly as possible: — avoiding occasions of expense by cultivating peace, but remembering also that timely disbursements to prepare for danger frequently prevent much greater disbursements to repel it — avoiding likewise the accumulation of debt, not only by shunning occasions of expense, but by vigorous exertions in time of Peace to discharge the debts which unavoidable wars may have occasioned, not ungenerously throwing upon posterity the burthen which

we ourselves ought to bear. The execution of these maxims belongs to your Representatives, but it is necessary that public opinion should coöperate. —

To facilitate to them the performance of their duty, it is essential that you should practically bear in mind, that towards the payment of debts there must be Revenue — that to have Revenue there must be taxes — that no taxes can be devised which are not more or less inconvenient and unpleasant — that the intrinsic embarrassment inseparable from the selection of the proper objects (which is always a choice of difficulties) ought to be a decisive motive for a candid construction of the conduct of the Government in making it, and for a spirit of acquiescence in the measures for obtaining Revenue which the public exigencies may at any time dictate. — Observe good faith and justice towards all Nations. Cultivate peace and harmony with all. . . .

Though, in reviewing the incidents of my Administration, I am unconscious of intentional error — I am nevertheless too sensible of my defects not to think it probable that I may have committed many errors. — Whatever they may be, I fervently beseech the Almighty to avert or mitigate the evils to which they may tend. — I shall also carry with me the hope that my country will never cease to view them with indulgence; and that after forty-five years of my life dedicated to its service, with an upright zeal, the faults of incompetent abilities will be consigned to oblivion, as myself must soon be to the mansions of rest.

Relying on its kindness in this as in other things, and actuated by that fervent love towards it, which is so natural to a man, who views in it the native soil of himself and his progenitors for several generations; — I anticipate with pleasing expectation that retreat, in which I promise myself to realize, without alloy, the sweet enjoyment of partaking, in the midst of my fellow-citizens, the benign influence of good Laws under a free Government, — the ever favourite object of my heart, and the happy reward, as I trust, of our mutual cares, labours, and dangers.

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

UNITED STATES,
September 17th, 1796.

# APPENDIX E.

## LINCOLN'S SECOND INAUGURAL ADDRESS.

FELLOW-COUNTRYMEN:

At this second appearing to take the oath of the Presidential office, there is less occasion for an extended address than there was at the first. Then a statement somewhat in detail of a course to be pursued seemed very fitting and proper. Now, at the expiration of four years, during which public declarations have been constantly called forth on every point and phase of the great contest which still absorbs the attention and engrosses the energies of the nation, little that is new could be presented.

The progress of our arms, upon which all else chiefly depends, is as well known to the public as to myself; and it is, I trust, reasonably satisfactory and encouraging to all. With high hope for the future, no prediction in regard to it is ventured.

On the occasion corresponding to this, four years ago, all thoughts were anxiously directed to an impending civil war. All dreaded it; all sought to avoid it. While the inaugural address was being delivered from this place, devoted altogether to saving the Union without war, insurgent agents were in this city seeking to destroy it without war, — seeking to dissolve the Union and divide the effects by negotiation. Both parties deprecated war; but one of them would make war rather than let the nation survive, and the other would accept war rather than let it perish; and the war came.

One-eighth of the whole population were colored slaves, not distributed generally over the Union, but localized in the southern part of it. These slaves constituted a peculiar and powerful interest. All knew that this interest was somehow the cause of the war. To strengthen, perpetuate, and extend this interest, was the object for which the insurgents would rend the Union even by war, while the Government claimed no right to do more than to restrict the territorial enlargement of it.

Neither party expected for the war the magnitude or the duration which it has already attained. Neither anticipated that the cause of the conflict might cease with, or even before, the conflict itself should cease. Each looked for an easier triumph, and a result less fundamental and astounding.

Both read the same Bible and pray to the same God, and each invokes his aid against the other. It may seem strange that any men should dare to ask a just God's assistance in wringing their bread from the sweat of other men's faces; but let us judge not, that we be not judged. The

prayers of both could not be answered. That of neither has been answered fully. The Almighty has his own purposes. "Woe unto the world because of offences, for it must needs be that offences come; but woe to that man by whom the offence cometh." If we shall suppose that American slavery is one of these offences, which in the providence of God must needs come, but which, having continued through his appointed time, he now wills to remove, and that he gives to both North and South this terrible war as the woe due to those by whom the offence came, shall we discern therein any departure from those divine attributes which the believers in a living God always ascribe to him? Fondly do we hope, fervently do we pray, that this mighty scourge of war may soon pass away. Yet, if God wills that it continue until all the wealth piled by the bondman's two hundred and fifty years of unrequited toil shall be sunk, and until every drop of blood drawn with the lash shall be paid with another drawn with the sword; as was said three thousand years ago, so still it must be said, "The judgments of the Lord are true and righteous altogether."

With malice toward none, with charity for all, with firmness in the right as God gives us to see the right, let us strive on to finish the work we are in, to bind up the nation's wounds, to care for him who shall have borne the battle and for his widow and orphans, to do all which may achieve and cherish a just and a lasting peace among ourselves and with all nations.

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# APPENDIX F.

## LINCOLN'S ADDRESS AT GETTYSBURG.

THE short address made by President Lincoln, November 19th, 1863, at the dedication of the National Cemetery on the battlefield of Gettysburg, has become a classic, and is justly entitled to be ranked as one of the choicest gems of literature in the English language. It embodies in brief the philosophy of the whole great struggle.

Various reports have been made as to how, when, and under what circumstances the President wrote the address. In the note of invitation by the master of ceremonies, written November 2d, occurs this sentence: "It is the desire that, after the oration, you, as Chief Executive of the Nation, formally set apart these grounds to their sacred use, by a few appropriate remarks."

The President would be likely, therefore, to give some thought to the subject before the day arrived, but there is conclusive evidence that the words of the address were not written out until after the Presidential party had arrived upon the ground.

The following account of how the address was written was received directly from the lips of ex-Governor Curtin, of Pennsylvania, who was present on the occasion and knew whereof he affirmed. Governor Curtin said that after the arrival of the party from Washington, while the President and his cabinet, Edward Everett, the orator of the day, Governor Curtin, and others were sitting in the parlor of the hotel, the President remarked that he understood the committee expected him to say something. He would, therefore, if they would excuse him, retire to the next room and see if he could write out something. He was absent some time, and upon returning to the company had in his hand a large-sized, yellow government envelope. The President sat down, and remarked that he had written something, and with their permission he would like to read it to them, and invited them to criticise it. After reading what he had written upon the envelope, he asked for any suggestions they might make. Secretary Seward volunteered one or two comments, which Mr. Lincoln accepted and incorporated. Then he said, "Now, gentlemen, if you will excuse me again, I will copy this off," and retiring again made a fresh copy to read from.

"Ah!" said Governor Curtin, "if I had begged that yellow envelope, which contained the original draft of this justly famous speech, how valuable it would have proved for the fairs which were, soon after, the order of the day."

The following is a complete copy of this famous address: —

"Fourscore and seven years ago our fathers brought forth on this continent a new nation, conceived in liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal. Now we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation, or any nation so conceived and so dedicated, can long endure. We are met on a great battlefield of that war. We have come to dedicate a portion of that field as a final resting-place for those who here gave their lives that that nation might live. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this. But in a larger sense we cannot dedicate, we cannot consecrate, we cannot hallow, this ground. The brave men, living and dead, who struggled here, have consecrated it far above our poor power to add or detract. The world will little note, nor long remember, what we say here, but it can never forget

what they did here. It is for us, the living, rather, to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who fought here have thus far so nobly advanced. It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us, — that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion, — that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain, that this nation under God shall have a new birth of freedom, and that government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth.'

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# APPENDIX G.

## SUPPLEMENTARY READING FOR YOUNG PEOPLE

### GENERAL HISTORY. — **Historical.**

BONNER . . . . . Child's History of the United States (3 vols.).
BRYANT AND GAY . Popular History of the United States (4 vols.).
BUTTERWORTH . . . . Young Folks' History of America.
DODGE . . . . . Stories of American History.
ELLIS . . . . . Youth's History of the United States.
Half Hours in American History (2 vols.).
JOHONNOT . . . . . Grandfather's Stories.
" . . . . . Stories of Heroic Deeds.
" . . . . . Stories of Our Country.
" . . . . . Ten Great Events in History.
MONROE . . . . . Story of Our Country.
PRATT . . . . . American History Stories.

**Biographical.**

PARKER . . . . . Historic Americans.
PARTON . . . . . Famous Americans.

**Historical Poetry.**

BUTTERWORTH . . . . Songs of History.
CARRINGTON . . . . . Beacon Lights of Patriotism.

### THE RED INDIANS. — **Descriptive**

BROOKS . . . . . The Story of the American Indian.
CATLIN . . . . . Life among the Indians.
JACKSON . . . . . A Century of Dishonor.

**Historical.**

DRAKE . . . . . Indian History for Young Folks.
ELLIS . . . . . The Red Man and the White Man.

MARKHAM . . . . . King Philip's War.
PARKMAN . . . . . Conspiracy of Pontiac.

**Biographical.**

EGGLESTON . . . . . Brant and Red Jacket.
" . . . . . Pocahontas.
" . . . . . Tecumseh.

**Historical Fiction.**

COOPER . . . . . Deerslayer. (French and Indian Wars.)
" . . . . . Last of the Mohicans. (do.)
" . . . . . Pathfinder. (do.)
" . . . . . Pioneers. (do.)
" . . . . . Prairie. (do.)
" . . . . . Red Rover. (do.)
HALE . . . . . Red and White. (Indian Gratitude.)
JACKSON . . . . . Ramona. (Southern California.)
SIMMS . . . . . Yemassee. (South Carolina.)

**Historical Poetry.**

LONGFELLOW . . . . Hiawatha. (Indian Legends.)
LOWELL . . . . . Chippewa Legend.
WHITTIER . . . . . Bridal of Pennacook.

COLONIAL PERIOD. — **Historical.**

BANVARD . . . . . Southern Explorers and Colonists.
BUTTERWORTH . . . . Young Folks' History of Boston.
COFFIN . . . . . Old Times in the Colonies.
DRAKE . . . . . Making of New England.
" . . . . . Taking of Louisburg.
EARLE . . . . . The Sabbath in Puritan New England.
FISKE . . . . . Beginnings of New England.
GILMAN . . . . . Colonization of America.
" . . . . . Discovery and Exploration of America.
" . . . . . Making of the American Nation.
" . . . . . The Story of Boston.
HALE . . . . . Stories of Discovery.
" . . . . . Story of Massachusetts.
HIGGINSON . . . . . Travelers and Outlaws.
LODGE . . . . . History of the English Colonies.
MOORE . . . . . From Colony to Commonwealth.
" . . . . . Pilgrims and Puritans.
PARKMAN . . . . . A Half-Century of Conflict.
" . . . . . Discovery of the Great West.
" . . . . . Frontenac and New France under Louis XIV.
" . . . . . Jesuits in North America.

PARKMAN . . . . . Montcalm and Wolfe.
" . . . . . Old Régime in Canada.
" . . . . . Pioneers of France in the New World.
WRIGHT . . . . . Children's Stories in American History.

### Biographical.

ABBOTT . . . . . Ferdinand de Soto.
" . . . . . Miles Standish.
" . . . . . Peter Stuyvesant.
ABERNETHY . . . . . Autobiography of Franklin.
BELL . . . . . Heroes of American Discovery.
GILMAN . . . . . Tales of the Pathfinders.
HIGGINSON . . . . . Young Folks' Book of American Explorers.
HOSMER . . . . . Young Sir Henry Vane. (Massachusetts.)
HUMPHREY . . . . . Adventures of Early Discoverers.
MARKHAM . . . . . The Sea Fathers.
THAYER . . . . . Farmer Boy. (Washington.)
TOWLE . . . . . Drake, the Sea King of Devon.
" . . . . . Magellan.
" . . . . . Sir Walter Raleigh.
" . . . . . Vasco da Gama.
TWITCHELL . . . . . John Winthrop.
WALKER . . . . . Thomas Hooker.

### Historical Fiction.

AUSTIN . . . . . Betty Alden. (Plymouth.)
" . . . . . Doctor Le Baron and his Daughters. (Plymouth.)
" . . . . . A Nameless Nobleman. (Plymouth.)
" . . . . . Standish of Standish. (Plymouth.)
BROOKS . . . . . In Leisler's Times. (New York.)
COOKE . . . . . My Lady Pocahontas.
" . . . . . Stories of the Old Dominion.
" . . . . . Virginia Comedians.
COOPER . . . . . Mercedes of Castile. (Spanish.)
" . . . . . The Water Witch. (New York.)
DRAKE . . . . . New England Legends and Folk Lore.
Faith White's Letter Book. (Massachusetts.)
HAWTHORNE . . . . . Grandfather's Chair. (New England.)
" . . . . . Legends of the Province House. (Boston.)
" . . . . . Twice Told Tales. (New England.)
HOLLAND . . . . . Bay Path. (Witchcraft.)
IRVING . . . . . Sketch Book.
KELLOGG . . . . . Good Old Times.
KENNEDY . . . . . Rob of the Bowl. (Maryland.)
MARKHAM . . . . . On the Edge of Winter.

SCUDDER . . . . . Boston Town.
SIMMS . . . . . Vasconselos. (De Soto.)
THOMPSON . . . . . The Green Mountain Boys.

**Historical Poetry.**

DURFEE . . . . . "What Cheer?" (Rhode Island.)
HEMANS . . . . . Landing of the Pilgrims.
LONGFELLOW . . . . Courtship of Miles Standish. (Plymouth.)
" . . . . Evangeline. (Acadia.)
" . . . . Giles Corey. (Witchcraft.)
" . . . . John Endicott. (Salem.)
" . . . . Sir Humphrey Gilbert.
LOWELL . . . . . Columbus.
PRESTON . . . . . Colonial Ballads.

REVOLUTIONARY PERIOD. — **Historical.**

ABBOTT . . . . . Blue Jackets of '76.
BROOKS . . . . . Story of the American Sailor.
" . . . . . Story of the American Soldier.
COFFIN . . . . . Boys of '76.
DRAKE . . . . . Burgoyne's Invasion.
ELLET . . . . . Domestic History of the American Revolution.
FISKE . . . . . Critical Period of the United States.
" . . . . . The War of Independence.
HOPPUS . . . . . The Great Treason.
LOSSING . . . . . Pictorial Field-Book of the Revolution.
LUDLOW . . . . . War of Independence.
PREBLE . . . . . History of the Flag.
ROOSEVELT . . . . . Winning the West.
SCUDDER . . . . . Men and Manners in America.
WATSON . . . . . Boston Tea Party.
" . . . . . Camp Fires of the Revolution.
WOODMAN . . . . . Boys and Girls of the Revolution.

**Biographical.**

FARMER . . . . . General La Fayette.
FISKE . . . . . Washington and his Country.
Benjamin Franklin. (World's Worker Series.)
GREENE . . . . . Life of General Greene.
HALE . . . . . George Washington.
HOSMER . . . . . Samuel Adams.
LODGE . . . . . George Washington.
LOSSING . . . . . Mary and Martha Washington.
" . . . . . Two Spies.
SIMMS . . . . . Life of Marion.

### Historical Fiction.

COOPER . . . . . Lionel Lincoln. (Siege of Boston.)
" . . . . . The Pilot. (Paul Jones.)
" . . . . . The Spy.
ELLIS . . . . . Storm Mountain. (Pennsylvania and Virginia.)
" . . . . . Wyoming. (Pennsylvania.)
GREENE . . . . . Peter and Polly. (New England.)
HENTY . . . . . True to the Flag. (Tory.)
KENNEDY . . . . . Horse Shoe Robinson. (Southern Colonies.)
SIMMS . . . . . American Spy.

### Historical Poetry.

BRYANT . . . . . Seventy-Six.
" . . . . . Song of Marion's Men. (Southern Colonies.)
EGGLESTON . . . . . American War Ballads and Lyrics.
EMERSON . . . . . Concord Fight.
EMMONS . . . . . Battle of Bunker Hill.
ENGLISH . . . . . Boy's Book of Battle Lyrics.
HOLMES . . . . . Grandmother's Story of the Battle of Bunker Hill.
LONGFELLOW . . . . Paul Revere's Ride.
LOTHROP . . . . . The Minute Man.
MOORE . . . . . Songs of the Soldiers.

## CONSTITUTIONAL PERIOD. — Historical.

ABBOTT . . . . . Blue Jackets of 1812.
BLACK . . . . . Story of Ohio. (Pioneer.)
BROOKS . . . . . Story of New York.
CABLE . . . . . The Negro Question.
COFFIN . . . . . Building the Nation.
IRVING . . . . . Astoria. (Oregon.)
DRAKE . . . . . Making of the Great West. (Northwest Territory.)
HAYGOOD . . . . . Our Brother in Black.
MCMASTER . . . . . History of the People of the United States.
Our First Century.
SOLEY . . . . . Boys of 1812.
TAYLOR . . . . . El Dorado. (Spanish America.)
WRIGHT . . . . . Children's Stories of American Progress.

### Biographical.

ABBOTT . . . . . Daniel Boone. (Kentucky.)
ADAMS . . . . . John Randolph.
BOLTON . . . . . Famous American Statesmen.
BOWDITCH . . . . . Nat the Navigator. (Nathaniel Bowditch.)
FREMONT . . . . . Souvenirs of my Time.
GAY . . . . . James Madison.

GILMAN . . . . . James Monroe.
HUNT . . . . . American Merchants.
LARCOM . . . . . A New England Girlhood.
LODGE . . . . . Alexander Hamilton.
" . . . . . Daniel Webster.
MAGRUDER . . . . . John Marshall.
MCLAUGHLIN . . . . Lewis Cass.
MORSE . . . . . Benjamin Franklin.
" . . . . . John Adams.
" . . . . . John Quincy Adams.
" . . . . . Thomas Jefferson.
PELLEW . . . . . John Jay.
PENNIMAN . . . . . The Tanner Boy. (Grant.)
REDPATH . . . . . John Brown.
ROOSEVELT . . . . . Gouverneur Morris.
" . . . . . Thomas Hart Benton.
SCHURZ . . . . . Henry Clay.
STEVENS . . . . . Albert Gallatin.
STODDARD . . . . . Lives of the Presidents of the United States.
THAYER . . . . . Success. (Successful Men.)
TYLER . . . . . Patrick Henry.
UPTON . . . . . Our Early Presidents, their Wives and Children.
VON HOLST . . . . . John C. Calhoun.

**Historical Fiction.**

COOKE . . . . . Steadfast. (Connecticut.)
COOPER . . . . . Wing on Wing. (French Privateer.)
EGGLESTON . . . . . Big Brother. (1812.)
" . . . . . Captain Sam. (1812.)
" . . . . . Signal Boys. (1812.)
HALE . . . . . Man without a Country.
" . . . . . Philip Nolan's Friends. (Louisiana.)
STOWE . . . . . Dred. (Slavery.)
" . . . . . Uncle Tom's Cabin.
TROWBRIDGE . . . . . Lawrence's Adventures. (Inventions.)

**Historical Poetry.**

LOWELL . . . . . Biglow Papers. (Mexican and Civil War.)
WHITTIER . . . . . Voices of Freedom.

CIVIL WAR. — **Historical.**

ABBOTT . . . . . Blue Jackets of '61.
" . . . . . The Battlefields of '61.
BLAISDELL . . . . . Stories of the Civil War.
CHAMPLIN . . . . . Young Folks' History of the War for the Union.
COFFIN . . . . . Boys of '61.

COFFIN . . . . . Drum-Beat of the Nation.
" . . . . . Following the Flag.
" . . . . . Freedom Triumphant.
" . . . . . Marching to Victory.
" . . . . . My Days and Nights on the Battlefield
" . . . . . Redeeming the Republic.
DRAKE . . . . . Battle of Gettysburg.
HIGGINSON . . . . . Army Life in a Black Regiment.
LOSSING . . . . . Pictorial History of the Civil War.
NICHOLS . . . . . Story of the Great March.
SOLEY . . . . . Sailor Boys of '61.
THAYER . . . . . Youth's History of the Civil War.

**Biographical.**

ADAMS . . . . . Our Standard Bearer. (Grant.)
BROOKS . . . . . Abraham Lincoln.
COOKE . . . . . General Lee.
GRANT . . . . . Memoirs.
HEADLEY . . . . . Fighting Phil. (Sheridan.)
" . . . . . Young Folks' Heroes of the Rebellion.
KIEFFER . . . . . Recollections of a Drummer-Boy.
Abraham Lincoln. (World's Worker Series
MORSE . . . . . Abraham Lincoln.
RANDOLPH . . . . . Stonewall Jackson.
STOWE . . . . . Self-made Men.
THAYER . . . . . Abraham Lincoln.

**Historical Fiction.**

ALCOTT . . . . . Hospital Sketches.
COFFIN . . . . . Winning his Way.
COOKE . . . . . Hilt to Hilt.
COOKE . . . . . Mohum.
" . . . . . Wearing of the Gray.
DAVIS . . . . . In War Times.
GOSS . . . . . Jed.
HENTY . . . . . With Lee in Virginia.
HOSMER . . . . . Color Guard.
TROWBRIDGE . . . . Coupon Bonds.
" . . . . Cudjo's Cave.
" . . . . Three Scouts.

**Historical Poetry.**

BROWNE . . . . . Bugle Echoes.
MOORE . . . . . Lyrics of Loyalty.
" . . . . . Rebel Rhymes and Rhapsodies.
WHITE . . . . . Poetry of the Civil War.
WHITTIER . . . . . In War Times.

| Name | State | College | Vocation | Party | Term of Office | Age at Election | Age at Death | Leading Facts of the Administration |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| George Washington | Virginia | None | Soldier and Planter | Federalist | 1789–1797 | 57 | 67 | Establishment of the New Government |
| John Adams | Massachusetts | Harvard | Lawyer | Federalist | 1797–1801 | 61 | 90 | Trouble with France |
| Thomas Jefferson | Virginia | William and Mary | Lawyer | Dem.-Rep. | 1801–1809 | 57 | 83 | Louisiana Purchase; Embargo Act |
| James Madison | Virginia | Princeton | Lawyer | Dem.-Rep. | 1809–1817 | 57 | 85 | War with England |
| James Monroe | Virginia | William and Mary | Lawyer | Dem.-Rep. | 1817–1825 | 58 | 73 | Missouri Compromise; Monroe Doctrine |
| John Quincy Adams | Massachusetts | Harvard | Lawyer | Republican | 1825–1829 | 57 | 80 | New Parties; Erie Canal |
| Andrew Jackson | Tennessee | None | Soldier and Lawyer | Democrat | 1829–1837 | 61 | 78 | Nullification; National Bank |
| Martin Van Buren | New York | None | Lawyer | Democrat | 1837–1841 | 54 | 79 | Independent Treasury |
| William Henry Harrison | Ohio | Hampden-Sydney | Soldier and Farmer | Whig | 1841 | 68 | 68 | |
| John Tyler | Virginia | William and Mary | Lawyer | Whig | 1841–1845 | 50 | 71 | Texas; Oregon |
| James Knox Polk | Tennessee | University of No. Carolina | Lawyer | Democrat | 1845–1849 | 49 | 53 | War with Mexico |
| Zachary Taylor | Louisiana | None | Soldier | Whig | 1849–1850 | 64 | 65 | Slavery Discussion |
| Millard Fillmore | New York | None | Lawyer | Whig | 1850–1853 | 50 | 74 | Compromise of 1850 |
| Franklin Pierce | New Hampshire | Bowdoin | Lawyer | Democrat | 1853–1857 | 48 | 64 | Kansas-Nebraska Act |
| James Buchanan | Pennsylvania | Dickinson | Lawyer | Democrat | 1857–1861 | 65 | 77 | Secession |
| Abraham Lincoln | Illinois | None | Lawyer | Republican | 1861–1865 | 52 | 56 | Civil War |
| Andrew Johnson | Tennessee | None | Tailor | Republican | 1865–1869 | 56 | 66 | Reconstruction |
| Ulysses Simpson Grant | Illinois | West Point | Soldier | Republican | 1869–1877 | 46 | 63 | Pacific Railroad; Centennial Exhibition |
| Rutherford Burchard Hayes | Ohio | Kenyon | Lawyer | Republican | 1877–1881 | 54 | 70 | Resumption of Specie Payments |
| James Abram Garfield | Ohio | Williams | Teacher | Republican | 1881 | 49 | 49 | |
| Chester Alan Arthur | New York | Union | Lawyer | Republican | 1881–1885 | 50 | 56 | Civil Service Reform |
| Grover Cleveland | New York | None | Lawyer | Democrat | 1885–1889 | 47 | | Labor Troubles |
| Benjamin Harrison | Indiana | Miami University | Lawyer | Republican | 1889–1893 | 55 | | Tariff Discussion |
| Grover Cleveland | | | | Democrat | 1893–1897 | 55 | | Tariff; Silver; Arbitration |
| William McKinley | Ohio | None | Lawyer | Republican | 1897– | 53 | | |

# APPENDIX I.

## TABLE OF THE STATES AND TERRITORIES.

| Name | Origin | Settlement | Date | Date of Admission | Capital | Area in Square Miles | Population 1890 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Alabama | Georgia and Florida | On Mobile Bay | 1702 | 1819 | Montgomery | 52,250 | 1,513,017 |
| Alaska Territory | Purchase from Russia | Kadiak | 1784 | | Sitka | 577,390 | |
| Arizona Territory | Mexican Purchases | Near Tucson | 1732 | | Phœnix | 113,020 | 59,620 |
| Arkansas | Louisiana | Arkansas Post | 1686 | 1836 | Little Rock | 53,850 | 1,128,179 |
| California | Mexican Purchase | San Diego | 1769 | 1850 | Sacramento | 158,360 | 1,208,130 |
| Colorado | Louisiana and Mexican Purchase | Near Denver | 1859 | 1876 | Denver | 103,925 | 412,198 |
| Connecticut | Plymouth Company | Windsor | 1633 | 1788 | Hartford | 4,990 | 746,258 |
| Delaware | New Sweden | Christiana | 1638 | 1787 | Dover | 2,050 | 168,493 |
| District of Columbia | Maryland | Washington | 1793 | | Washington | 70 | 230,392 |
| Florida | Purchase from Spain | St. Augustine | 1565 | 1845 | Tallahassee | 58,680 | 391,422 |
| Georgia | Georgia Grant | Savannah | 1733 | 1788 | Atlanta | 59,475 | 1,837,353 |
| Idaho | Oregon | Pioneer City | 1862 | 1890 | Boisé City | 84,800 | 84,385 |
| Illinois | Northwest Territory | Kaskaskia | 1700 | 1818 | Springfield | 56,650 | 3,826,351 |
| Indiana | Northwest Territory | Near La Fayette | 1720 | 1816 | Indianapolis | 36,350 | 2,192,404 |
| Indian Territory | Louisiana | | | | | 31,400 | |
| Iowa | Louisiana | Dubuque | 1788 | 1846 | Des Moines | 56,025 | 1,911,896 |
| Kansas | Louisiana and Mexican Purchase | Leavenworth | 1854 | 1861 | Topeka | 82,080 | 1,427,096 |
| Kentucky | Virginia | Harrodsburgh | 1774 | 1792 | Frankfort | 40,400 | 1,858,635 |
| Louisiana | Louisiana | Ship Island | 1699 | 1812 | Baton Rouge | 48,720 | 1,118,587 |
| Maine | Massachusetts | Pemaquid | 1630 | 1820 | Augusta | 33,040 | 661,086 |
| Maryland | Maryland Grant | St. Mary's | 1634 | 1788 | Annapolis | 12,210 | 1,042,390 |
| Massachusetts | Plymouth Company | Plymouth | 1620 | 1788 | Boston | 8,315 | 2,238,943 |
| Michigan | Northwest Territory | St. Mary | 1668 | 1837 | Lansing | 58,915 | 2,093,889 |

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Minnesota | Louisiana and Northwest Territory | Fort Snelling | 1819 | 1858 | St. Paul | 83,365 | 1,301,826 |
| Mississippi | Georgia and Florida | Biloxi | 1699 | 1817 | Jackson | 46,810 | 1,289,600 |
| Missouri | Louisiana | St. Genevieve | 1700 | 1821 | Jefferson City | 69,415 | 2,679,184 |
| Montana | Louisiana | Bismark City | 1862 | 1889 | Helena | 146,080 | 132,159 |
| Nebraska | Louisiana | Omaha | 1854 | 1867 | Lincoln | 77,510 | 1,058,910 |
| Nevada | Mexican Purchase | Genoa | 1849 | 1864 | Carson City | 110,700 | 45,761 |
| New Hampshire | Plymouth Company | Dover | 1623 | 1788 | Concord | 9,305 | 376,530 |
| New Jersey | New Netherlands | Fort Nassau | 1623 | 1787 | Trenton | 7,815 | 1,444,933 |
| New Mexico Territory | Mexican Purchases | San Juan | 1598 | | Santa Fé | 122,580 | 153,593 |
| New York | New Netherlands | Manhattan | 1613 | 1788 | Albany | 49,170 | 5,997,853 |
| North Carolina | Carolina Grant | Albemarle | 1653 | 1789 | Raleigh | 52,250 | 1,617,947 |
| North Dakota | Louisiana | Pembina | 1812 | 1889 | Bismark | 70,795 | 182,719 |
| Ohio | Northwest Territory | Marietta | 1788 | 1803 | Columbus | 41,060 | 3,672,316 |
| Oklahoma Territory | Louisiana and Mexican Purchase | Guthrie | 1889 | | Guthrie | 39,030 | 61,834 |
| Oregon | Oregon | Astoria | 1811 | 1859 | Salem | 96,030 | 313,767 |
| Pennsylvania | Grant to Penn | Chester | 1645 | 1787 | Harrisburgh | 45,215 | 5,258,014 |
| Rhode Island | Plymouth Company | Providence | 1636 | 1790 | Providence and Newport | 1,250 | 345,506 |
| South Carolina | Carolina Grant | Old Charlestown | 1670 | 1788 | Columbia | 30,570 | 1,151,149 |
| South Dakota | Louisiana | Sioux Falls | 1856 | 1889 | Pierre | 77,650 | 328,808 |
| Tennessee | North Carolina | Near Blountville | 1769 | 1796 | Nashville | 42,050 | 1,767,518 |
| Texas | Texas | Lavaca | 1686 | 1845 | Austin | 265,780 | 2,235,523 |
| Utah | Mexican Purchase | Salt Lake City | 1847 | 1896 | Salt Lake City | 84,970 | 207,905 |
| Vermont | New Hampshire or New York | Fort Dummer | 1724 | 1791 | Montpelier | 9,565 | 332,432 |
| Virginia | London Company | Jamestown | 1607 | 1788 | Richmond | 42,450 | 1,655,980 |
| Washington | Oregon | Waülatpu | 1836 | 1889 | Olympia | 69,180 | 349,390 |
| West Virginia | Virginia | Romney | 1762 | 1863 | Charleston | 24,780 | 762,794 |
| Wisconsin | Northwest Territory | Green Bay | 1669 | 1848 | Madison | 56,040 | 1,686,880 |
| Wyoming | Louisiana and Mexican Purchase | North Pass | 1867 | 1890 | Cheyenne | 97,890 | 60,705 |

# APPENDIX J.

## HOW DR. WHITMAN SAVED OREGON.

On page 254 our claims to the Oregon country are stated. Joint occupancy between the British and Americans was maintained from 1818 to 1846. Meanwhile the Astor Fur Company had fallen into the hands of the Hudson Bay Company. This company sought to secure a majority of the inhabitants, intending to make the entire territory British rather than American.

Dr. Marcus Whitman, a native of the State of New York, a missionary physician among the Indians in the region of the upper Columbia, determined to prevent this and to secure the whole country to the United States by the same means; namely, obtaining a majority of the population. Acting on this determination, with intrepid bravery and untold suffering, accompanied by a single companion only, this heroic patriot braved the snows and the cold of the Rocky Mountains and made a winter's journey on horseback, of more than three thousand miles, from the Columbia River to St. Louis and the city of Washington, to warn the government of the designs of the British, and to implore its protection for our citizens in that remote region.

Fearing treachery if he followed the well-known route through the "South Pass," he turned off, a thousand miles out of his way, and took the "Old Indian Trail," southerly, through the Spanish country. His route took him to Fort Hall in Idaho, Fort Uintah in Utah, Fort Uncompagre in Colorado, and to old Fort Taos and Santa Fé in New Mexico. The hardships, perils, and hairbreadth escapes of this remarkable journey can scarcely be equalled in the pages of fiction.

During the following summer Dr. Whitman piloted a great caravan, divided into four bands, consisting of nearly a thousand persons, men, women, and children, with two hundred emigrant wagons, and fifteen hundred head of cattle, from Missouri to the Columbia River. This large addition to the population of Oregon more than doubled the number of inhabitants, and the Americans soon organized and put in operation a provisional government. When, therefore, the treaty of 1846 settled the boundary question, it was only legalizing what, in fact, had already been made certain by this emigration of 1843.

# APPENDIX K.

## THE WAR WITH SPAIN — 1898.

In 1898 the United States engaged in a war with Spain. This grew out of a deplorable condition of affairs in Cuba. An attempted revolution had been in progress in that island since early in 1895.

The Spanish government sent over a large army under Marshal Campos to put down this insurrection. Campos, however, failed to subdue the insurgents, who had declared independence, and had set up a government in the eastern provinces of the island.

Spain recalled Marshal Campos and placed the army under command of Captain General Weyler, an experienced and distinguished officer. From the first, the course of Weyler and his army was barbarous and brutal in the extreme. He began a policy of extermination. Women and children, the aged and the wounded, were massacred with merciless cruelty.

In order to starve out the insurgent forces, the farming population of large areas of territory were driven from their homes and their industries and were concentrated in the cities under military guard. The situation of these people, who were called "reconcentrados," became desperate. Many thousands of them died of starvation. Weyler's system of savage barbarity stirred the hearts of the people of our country until the general feeling throughout the United States was manifested by one united cry of intense indignation.

Early in 1896 Congress adopted resolutions favoring the recognition of the Cuban insurgents by this government as belligerents, and recommending that Cuban independence should be sought by the President through friendly offices with Spain. Soon after this, however, President Cleveland issued a proclamation of neutrality and of warning to filibusters.

The lack of military success on the part of the Spanish army, and the increasing cruelty of Weyler, led the President in his message to Congress in December, 1896, to state, after a review of the bad management of the Spanish army in Cuba, that the patience of this country might be exhausted unless a termination of the barbarous conditions there was speedily reached.

The next year President McKinley issued a similar warning, and, through our consuls, instituted a careful system of examination into

the condition of affairs in the island. The reports which he received, together with previous reports which had not been published, revealed an appalling state of suffering.

At the President's suggestion Congress appropriated $50,000 to relieve American citizens in Cuba. The President also called for popular subscriptions to carry food, medicine, and nurses to the reconcentrados. The people responded, and under the banner of the Red Cross Society large supplies were sent to the island.

The Spanish Cabinet set up an autonomist government, as it was called, but it proved to be a signal failure. About this time our battleship "Maine," after due notification that it was coming, made a friendly visit to the harbor of Havana. On the night of the 15th of February, 1898, when our sailors to the number of more than 350 were asleep on board the "Maine," the vessel was blown up and great numbers of them perished. Indignation in America was intense, but it restrained itself until an official report showed that the explosion was caused by a submarine mine underneath the vessel.

Meantime several United States Senators had been to Cuba, and, in speeches delivered in the Senate, they showed clearly and conclusively that the conditions in that island under the military regime of Weyler were such as to demand our immediate interference on the simple ground of humanity.

Congress at once voted unanimously an appropriation of $50,000,000 for national defence, and the same was placed in the hands of the President to be expended at his discretion. The unanimity of this vote was unprecedented in the history of our country.

In April, 1898, President McKinley sent a message to Congress, pointing out that the destruction of the "Maine" justified interference in Cuban affairs. About a week later Congress declared Cuba free, though the bill did not recognize the insurgent government. This act was passed to protect Americans in Cuba, to preserve our trade with the island, and to end conditions which, on the one hand, were inhuman, and, on the other, menaced our peace.

Our American minister to Madrid was General Woodford. The Spanish government at once gave him his passports, with the statement that Spain regarded the course of the American Congress as equivalent to a declaration of war.

The United States then declared war against Spain, and sent

a fleet to blockade Havana and other ports of Cuba. This was done on the 22d of April, and the next day the President issued a call to the States for 125,000 volunteers. Congress had already greatly increased our regular army, and it further provided for raising several national volunteer regiments. Another call for State troops was issued, and in a few weeks an army numbering nearly 300,000 men had been raised, and Congress had provided ample means for carrying on the war with vigor and despatch.

On the 1st of May Commodore Dewey sailed into the harbor of Manila, the capital of Spain's Philippine Islands, utterly destroyed a Spanish fleet of eleven vessels, captured the fort at Cavite, and held Manila at his mercy. In this remarkable battle the Spaniards lost 400 killed and 600 wounded, while not an American was killed, only six wounded, and not one of Dewey's six ships was seriously injured. For this victory, which astounded the world, Dewey received the thanks of Congress, and was made a Rear Admiral.

Admiral Cervera, with seven war ships, the flower of the Spanish navy, arrived at Santiago de Cuba on May 19th. The two fleets of Rear Admiral Sampson and Commodore Schley concentrated before the harbor and penned in the Spanish squadron. Cervera's escape was made more difficult by the famous exploit of Naval Constructor Hobson, who, before daylight June 3d, with six men, took the collier "Merrimac" into the narrow entrance of the harbor and sank her in the channel, while exposed to the annihilating fire of the Spanish forts and fleets. The little band miraculously escaped destruction, and were made prisoners by the Spanish Admiral himself, who, in recognition of their heroism, announced their safety under a flag of truce to Admiral Sampson.

General Shafter, with nearly 20,000 troops, landed just east of Santiago and invested the place. In spite of prodigious obstacles and unforeseen distresses, the Americans pressed forward, and by a series of desperate fights, culminating in the heroic charge up San Juan Hill, captured the Spanish outposts, and held the city in siege. Sunday morning, July 3d, Admiral Cervera attempted to escape, but his entire fleet was destroyed, and every one of his men either killed or taken prisoner in an engagement as extraordinary as was the battle of Manila. A few days later the Spanish army in Santiago surrendered to General Shafter. Immediately an expedition

under General Miles to Puerto Rico was undertaken. Landing on the south coast, the American soldiers were received with cordial welcome by the people, the Spanish troops falling back toward the stronghold of San Juan. During the progress of this campaign, peace negotiations were begun at the instance of Spain.

On August 12th, the French Ambassador, Jules Cambon, acting for Spain, and William R. Day, Secretary of State of the United States, signed a protocol of peace, and orders were given to cease hostilities. By the terms of the protocol, Spain relinquished all claim of sovereignty over and title to Cuba, ceded Puerto Rico to the United States, and referred the future of the Philippine Islands to a commission which should draw up a definite treaty of peace.

The closing battle of the war occurred the day after the signing of the protocol. Admiral Dewey, with the fleet, and General Merritt, with an army which had been sent to support the navy, made a combined attack upon the city of Manila, which soon surrendered. Congress again showed its gratitude; it re-established the rank of admiral, thereby permitting President McKinley to raise Rear Admiral Dewey to the position hitherto filled only by Admirals Farragut and Porter.

Five commissioners, appointed by the President, met five others who represented Spain, at Paris, October 1st, 1898. Two months later a treaty was concluded which ratified the protocol in every point and further provided that the Philippine Islands be ceded to the United States and that the United States should pay to Spain the sum of $20,000,000. The proposed treaty was brought before the Senate of the United States, and, after full discussion, was ratified February 6th, 1899. March 17th the Queen Regent of Spain also signed the treaty, and peace between the two nations was officially declared.

The close of the war brought new questions to the front, which must be thoughtfully answered by the American people. By her great victories the United States leaped to the first rank as a naval power. The forms of government adapted to the new possessions require careful study. Party politics must be subordinated to patriotism, if the new issues are to be satisfactorily decided.

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**Arkansas,** (ar′kăn-saw).
**Astoria,** (ăs-tō′rĭ-a).

**Balboa, Vasco Nuñez de,** (vas′co nūn′yāth de Bal-bō′a).
**Barbadoes,** (băr-bā′dōz).
**Bartolomeo,** (bar-tŏl-ō-mā′ō).
**Berkeley,** (berk′lĭ).
**Bermudas,** (ber-mu′daz).
**Beverly,** (bĕv′ĕr-ly).
**Bon Homme Richard,** (bun-hum-rich′ard).
**Boscawen,** (bos′kă-wen).
**Bowdoin,** (bō′d'n).
**Braddock,** (brad′dok).
**Breton,** (brĕt′on).
**Brewster,** (broo′ster).
**Buena Vista,** (bwā′nah-vēs′tah).
**Burgesses,** (bur′ges-ses).
**Burgoyne,** (bur-goyn′).

**Cabal,** (ka-băl′).
**Calvert,** (kal′vert).
**Campbell,** (kăm′el or kăm′bel).
**Canoes,** (ka-nooz′).
**Cape Breton,** (cape brĕt′on).
**Carteret,** (kar′ter-et).
**Cartier,** (kăr-tē-ā′).
**Champe, John,** (john champ).
**Champlain,** (sham-plain′).
**Charlotte,** (shar′lot).
**Chavagnac,** (shă-văn-yăk′).
**Chickahominy,** (chik-a-hom′i-ny).
**Chihuahua,** (chē-wah′wah).
**Clement,** (klem′ent).
**Coahuila,** (ko-ah-wē′la).
**Coligny,** (ko-lēn′yē).
**Colonial,** (kō-lō′-nĭ-ăl).
**Comfort, Point,** (point kum′fort).
**Conant,** (kō′nant).
**Constantinople,** (con-stan-ti-nō′ple).
**Cornelius,** (kor-nēl′yus).
**Corpus Christi,** (kor′pus kris′tĭ).
**Craddock,** (krăd′dok).
**Creeks,** (krēks).
**Croix,** (kroy).
**Cuttyhunk,** (cut-ty-hunk′).

**De Grasse,** (deh-gras′).
**De La Place,** (deh lah plăs′).
**Delaware,** (del′a-ware).
**Delft-haven,** (delft-hā′ven).
**D'Estaing,** (des-tan′).
**Diaz,** (dē′az).
**D'Iberville,** (dē-ber-vēl′).
**Dorchester,** (dor′ches-ter).
**D'Orvilliers,** (dŏr-vē′ye-ā′).
**Du Quesne,** (du-kāne′).

**Eli,** (ē′lī).
**Endicott,** (ĕn′dĭ-kŏt).
**Episcopal,** (ē-pĭs′cō-pal).
**Ericson,** (ĕr′ĭk-sĕn).

**Faneuil,** (făn′el).
**Frelinghuysen,** (frē′ling-hī-zen).
**Frobisher,** (frō′bish-er).
**Frolic,** (frol′ık).

**Genoa,** (jen′o-a).
**Gerry,** (ger′ry, not jer′ry).
**Girard,** (jĭ-rard′).
**Gorges,** (gor′jez).
**Gosnold,** (gŏs′nold).
**Gourgues,** (goorg).
**Groton,** (grŏ′ton).
**Guadalupe,** (gwah-dah-loop′).
**Guanahani,** (gwah-nah-hah′-nē).
**Guilford,** (gĭl′ford).
**Gustavus,** (gŭs-tah′-vŭs).

**Hakluyt,** (hăk′loot).
**Harlem,** (har′lem).
**Heister,** (hīs′ter).
**Henrietta Maria,** (hĕn-rĭ-ĕt′a ma-rī′a).
**Hesse-Cassel,** (hes′kas′el).
**Hessian,** (hĕsh′an).
**Hidalgo,** (ē-dăl′gō).
**Higginson,** (hĭg′gĭn-sŏn).
**Hobkirk,** (hŏb′kirk).
**Hochelaga,** (hok-a-lah′gah).
**Hutchinson, Anne,** (ann hutch′in-son).
**Huguenot,** (hū′ge-not).

**Illinois,** (ĭl-ĭ-noy′).
**Iroquois,** (ĭr-ō-quoi′).

**Joliet,** (zhō-lyā′).

**Knyphausen,** (knip′how-zen).

**Lafayette,** (lah-fā-yĕt′).
**La Salle,** (lah săl′).
**Laudonnière,** (lō′don′nē-air′).

**Laurens,** (lau′renz).
**Leger,** (lĕj′er).
**Leslie,** (lĕz′lĭ).
**Leyden,** (lī′-dn).
**Los Angeles,** (lōs an′je-les).
**Loudon,** (lōw′don).
**Louis,** (loo′ĭ).
**Louisburg,** (loo′ĭs-burg).
**Louisiana,** (loo-ē-zĭ-ăn′a).

**MacDonough,** (măc-dŏn′ō).
**Magellan,** (ma-jĕl′lăn).
**Marquette,** (mar-ket′).
**Massacre,** (măs′să-kĕr).
**Massasoit,** (măs′să-soit′).
**Mecklenburg,** (měk′len-burg).
**Menendez,** (mā-nĕn′dĕth).
**Mīamĭ,** (mī-ăm′ĭ).
**Milan,** (mĭl′ăn).
**Minuit, Peter,** (pe′ter min′ū-it).
**Miquelon,** (mē-kĕ-lŏn′).
**Mississippi,** (mĭs-ĭ-sĭp′ĭ).
**Monongahela,** (mō-nŏn-gah-hē′lah).
**Monsieur,** (mŏ-sēr′).
**Montcalm,** (mŏnt-kahm′).
**Moultrie,** (moul′try).

**Nassau,** (năs′sau).
**Naumkeag,** (naum′kĕg).
**Netherlanders,** (nĕth′ĕr-lăn-ders).
**Newcastle,** (nū′căsl).
**Nez Perces,** (nā-par-sā′).
**Niagara,** (nī-ag′ah-rah).
**Nueces,** (nwā′sĕs).
**Nuisance,** (nū′sance).
**Nullification,** (nŭl-ĭ-fĭ-cā′shun).

**Oglethorpe,** (ō′gl-thorp).
**Orleans,** (ŏr′lē-ănz).

**Palos,** (pah-los′).
**Parliament,** (păr′lĭ-ment).
**Pawtucket,** (paw-tŭck′ĕt).
**Pedro,** (pē′drō).
**Peekskill,** (pēk′skil).
**Pequot,** (pē′qwot).
**Pierce, Franklin,** (frank′lin pērs).
**Pierre,** (pē-air′).
**Pierre de Monte,** (pē-air′ de mŏn′).
**Piscataqua,** (pĭs-kăt′ah-qwa).
**Pitcairn,** (pĭt′-kairn).
**Pocahontas,** (pō-kah-hŏn′tăs).
**Pokanokets,** (pō-kă-nō′kĕts).
**Pomeroy,** (pŭm′e-roi).
**Ponce de Leon,** (pōn′thā dā lā-ōn′).
**Popham,** (pŏp′hăm).
**Powhatan,** (pou′ha-tăn′).
**Prevost,** (prē-vō′).
**Prideaux,** (prĭd′ō).
**Provincial,** (prō-vĭn′shăl).
**Prussia,** (prŭsh′ya).
**Pueblos,** (pwĕb′lōz).
**Pulaski,** (pū-lăs′kĭ).

**Quebec,** (quē-bec′).
**Queen Anne,** (queen ann).
**Quinnipiack,** (kwin-nĭp′ĭ-ak).

**Raleigh,** (raw′lĭ).
**Randolph,** (răn′dolf).
**Ratcliffe,** (răt′klif).
**Rehoboth,** (re-hō′both).
**Ribault,** (rē′bō).
**Rio Grande,** (rē′ō-gran′dā).
**Roanoke,** (rō-ă-nōk′).
**Rocheblave,** (rōsh′blave).
**Rotch,** (rŏtch).
**Ryswick,** (rĭz′wĭk).

**Saint Croix,** (saint croy).
**Saint Pierre,** (săn pē-air′).
**Samoset,** (săm′ō-sĕt).
**Santa Fe,** (săn-tah-fā′).
**Santiago,** (săn-tē-ah′gō).
**Schuyler,** (skī′ler).
**Schuylkill,** (skool′kil).
**Scrooby,** (skroo′by).
**Seekonk,** (see′konk).
**Serapis,** (sĕ-ra′pis).
**Sevier,** (se-vēr′).
**Shackamaxon,** (shăk-a-măx′on).
**Shoshones,** (shō-shō′nēz).
**Sioux,** (soo).
**Somers, George,** (jorge sum′erz).
**Somersetshire,** (sum′er-set-shēr or shire).
**Sowams,** (sō′wamz).
**Specie,** (spē′she).
**Spokanes,** (spō-kānes′).
**Stephens,** (stē′venz).
**Stuyvesant,** (stī′ve-sant).
**Swansea,** (swon′sē).
**Sweden,** (swē′den).

**Taunton,** (taun′tŏn) (au, as in aunt).
**Ticonderoga,** (tī-cŏn-dĕr-ō′ga).
**Tories,** (tō′riz).

**Utrecht,** (ū′trekt).

**Vera Cruz,** (vā′rah krooz).
**Vergennes,** (vĕr-zhĕn′).
**Verplanck,** (vĕr′plangk).
**Verrazano,** (ver-raht-sah′nō).
**Vespucci,** (ves-poo′chē).
**Vincennes,** (vĭn-sĕn′).
**Von Heister,** (vŏn-hīs′ter).

**Wabash,** (wah′băsh).
**Wampanoags,** (wŏm-pah-nō′ăgz).
**Ward, Artemas,** (ar′te-mas ward).
**Westmoreland,** (west′mōr land).
**Wigwam,** (wig′wŏm).
**Wyoming,** (wī′ō-ming).

**Yakamas,** (yăk′ā-mahs).

**Zunis,** (zoo′nyēz).

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